PRINCIPLES OF PUBLIC SPEAKING

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PRINCIPLES
OF
PUBLIC SPEAKING

COMPRISING THE TECHNIQUE OF ARTICULATION, PHRASING, EMPHASIS: THE CURE OF VOCAL DEFECTS: THE ELEMENTS OF GESTURE: A COMPLETE GUIDE IN PUBLIC READING, EXTEMPORANEOUS SPEAKING, DEBATE, AND PARLIAMENTARY LAW, TOGETHER WITH MANY EXERCISES, FORMS, AND PRACTICE SELECTIONS.

BY

GUY CARLETON LEE, PH.D.

OF JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY

SECOND EDITION

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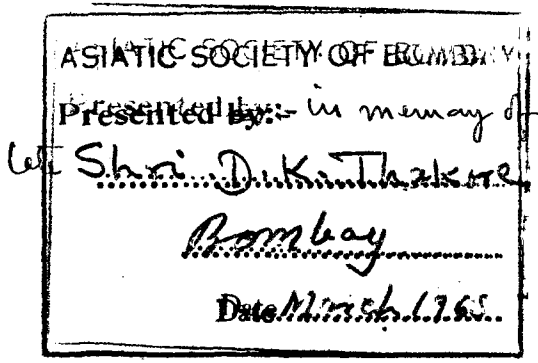
IT IS WITH SINCERE PLEASURE
THAT I DEDICATE THIS BOOK
TO
PROFESSOR HERBERT B. ADAMS,
A SCHOLAR OF DISTINGUISHED MERIT
AND ONE OF THE MOST PLEASING AND EFFECTIVE
OF AMERICAN PUBLIC SPEAKERS.


ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BOMBAY
Presented by:- In memory of
Late Shri D.K. Thakore
Bombay
Date March 1965

PREFACE TO SECOND EDITION

I AM grateful for the appreciation which has necessitated three printings of this manual within a year of its first publication.

The new edition has received a careful revision, and is, I think, improved in several particulars. I shall always welcome any correspondence having for its end the increased usefulness of the volume or the advancement of the interests of its readers.

GUY CARLETON LEE.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,
May, 1900.

PREFACE

I HAVE sought to present within the limits of this volume a practical exposition of the art of Public Speaking.

A distinctive feature of this text-book is its comprehensiveness. In one volume the student will find, not only the elements of vocal culture and the treatment of the subject of extemporaneous speaking and debate, but also a manual of Parliamentary Law.

I have profited largely by the work of my predecessors. I have drawn extensively from their valuable treatises. I hesitate to express thanks to individuals, but must state my particular obligation to the works of George Pierce Baker, William B. Chamberlain, S. H. Clark, J. Scott Clark, Robert I. Fulton, C. J. Plumptre, Ralph Curtis Ringwalt, Thomas C. Trueblood, and E. T. Southwick.

I am pleased to acknowledge my indebtedness to my pupil and friend, Edward P. Hyde, of Johns Hopkins University, for valued assistance in the compilation of the Rules of Order.

GUY CARLETON LEE.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,
September 1, 1899.

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PART I

VOICE AND GESTURE

CHAPTER I.

MANAGEMENT OF THE BREATH

Life of the Public Speaker—The Breath—The Nose and its Functions—Effects of Taking Air through the Mouth—Varieties of Breathing: Clavicular, Costal, and Abdominal—Natural Method of Respiration—Exercises for Breathing—Audible Breathing—Scientific Respiration the Foundation of Success in Public Speaking.

WHOEVER would train the voice and develop its natural powers should strictly observe a hygienic habit of life. This applies as well to the professional speaker or singer, as to that much larger number of persons who depend upon vocal utterance in some form for success in their vocations. Students of the art of speaking should have a knowledge of the structure and functions of the vocal organs. This can be obtained from standard works upon physiology or the voice. A good description of the vocal organs can also be obtained from any standard dictionary or cyclopedia.

Life of the Public Speaker.

The student should know and obey those simple laws of nature which govern the sanitary welfare of the physical man. A healthy body for a healthy

mind is a principle of wide acceptance, and with equal truth it may be said that vigorous health is essential to a strong and resonant voice. In other words, the life of the public speaker needs to be so ordered as to maintain the body in perfect working condition.

It was Dr. Johnson who said, "We can be useful no longer than we are well." Moreover, Herbert Spencer was right in the observation: "If any one doubts the importance of an acquaintance with the principles of physiology as a means to complete living, let him look around and see how many men and women he can find in middle or later life who are thoroughly well."

Ease and effectiveness in public speaking depend largely upon correct management of the breath.

The Breath.

Not only does the working of the bellows affect the quality of tone, but it may result in damage to the apparatus if it is not properly done. Many a good voice has been spoiled by false methods of respiration, and it is undoubtedly true that much of the throat trouble complained of by speakers, singers, and others is traceable to the same source. Scientific breathing, indeed, lies at the very basis of vocal culture, and too great attention cannot be given to the subject.

The first rule to be enjoined is: Breathe through the nose. The nostrils were specially designed by nature as conduits through which to convey air to the lungs. They have three important functions to perform in preparing the outside air for the aëration of the blood.

Breathe through the Nose.

These are to warm, to moisten, and to filter, all of which are accomplished by means of the peculiar structure of the nasal linings and tissues. Consequently, inhaling the air through the nose is the natural and healthful mode of inspiration.

Leading physicians concur in the statement that the prevailing conception of the nose is that of an organ intended by nature chiefly and pre-eminently for the purpose of olfaction. It is thought of as being useful to smell with, not to breathe through. To this erroneous impression may be traced a lamentable indifference to the violation of certain vitally important ordinances of nature.

Function of the Nose.

If through accident or diseased condition the nose has become obstructed or otherwise disabled, it is supposed, conformably with such a restricted view of its physiology, that the consequence is nothing more than a slight inconvenience. What if, instead of the respiratory function of the nose being secondary to the olfactory, we assert the very reverse to be true, and that the olfactory is subsidiary to the respiratory, in the sense that by the former we are apprised of the state of the atmosphere about us and warned as to what air we may or may not breathe?

The nose is in fact eminently adapted, by reason of its structure, to take a certain part in the great process of respiration, and a failure to use it will entail upon the system marked and irreparable damage. If an individual breathes through the mouth instead of the nose he is guilty of a hygienic trans-

gression, for which he will have to pay a heavy penalty.

Besides warming the air, filtering and moistening it, the nose performs several secondary offices which minister to the general health. The Eustachian tubes which open into the throat receive normally a sufficient supply of air from that drawn by way of the nose to keep the atmosphere in the tympanic cavity at just the right pressure. These tubes suffer from a lack of ventilation when the nose is obstructed.

Effects of Mouth-Breathing.

This effect can be simply yet strikingly illustrated by swallowing at the same time that the nostrils are held tightly closed by pressure of the fingers,—a practice, however, not to be often repeated.

The effects of nasal obstruction may sometimes be observed upon the brain, which is separated from the roof of the nose by a very thin partition. Among the mental symptoms which occur, are loss of memory, inability to concentrate the attention, depression of spirits, and even melancholia.

The larynx, bronchial tubes, and lungs naturally suffer, being directly affected by the entrance of air that is too cold, too dry, or laden with dust and germs. Inflammation of the lower respiratory tract, even if not at once induced, is much more likely to develop from other causes when the resisting power of the parts has been so reduced.

In this light, indeed, even a causative relation between a nasal obstruction and pulmonary consumption is not a conception by any means too remote to be reasonably entertained.

Such are the evil effects of mouth-breathing, a practice necessitated by any complete obstruction of the nasal passages.

An eminent authority has this to say with reference to mouth-breathing: "If I were to endeavor to bequeath to posterity the most important motto which the human language can convey, it would be in three words: Shut your mouth."

The structure of the thorax is such that three distinct methods of respiration are possible. They may be employed separately, but for practical effect in voice production at least two of them are generally called into requisition at the same time. The names applied to these three forms of respiration are derived from the several sets of organs brought into play in producing them. **Varieties of Breathing.**

Filling the lungs by clavicular breathing is seldom used apart from the modes subsequently described, still it is distinct from them. It is effected by alternately raising and lowering the collar bone by muscular effort, with an attendant elevation and depression of the shoulders. In this way the upper part of the thorax is expanded and contracted, resulting in a partial filling and exhaustion of the lungs. This is, of course, a very imperfect method of breathing. The chest at the point affected is narrow, and the bony structure is such as to render great freedom of movement impossible. This mode of taking breath is also extremely fatiguing, and it is difficult by its use alone to supply the lungs with the required amount of air **Clavicular Breathing.**

to sustain life, and to reserve a portion for vocal effort. It is, however, to be employed at times, especially by the reader or actor, when he wishes to represent the appearance of great physical exhaustion or the culmination of intense bodily suffering. But clavicular breathing results in spasmodic expulsion of the air through the vocal organs, and authorities are agreed that as a habit of respiration it is to be condemned.

Costal or rib-breathing takes its name from the action of the intercostal muscles in its production.

Costal Breathing. The lower ribs of the thorax are freer to move than are those near the top. Hence, by successive contractions and relaxations of the interlacing muscles considerable change can be effected in the lung cavity. When by an effort of the will the ribs are caused to move outward and upward, the lungs are necessarily inflated almost to their full capacity. The movement also is a natural and easy one, and exercises to develop costal breathing are among the most important regulations to be observed in elocutionary drill. Yet this is only a partial method of respiration, and is subordinate and secondary to the third type of correct breathing.

The organs which perform the work of filling and exhausting the lungs by abdominal respiration are

Abdominal Breathing. the midriff and abdominal muscles. It is the natural way to breathe, and hence best suited to the purposes of public speaking. The front wall of the abdomen moves outward, the diaphragm contracts and moves downward, and the lungs resting upon it are free to become inflated

to their fullest extent. By the reverse movement the air is forced out with the least expenditure of effort. After a long address, public speakers sometimes complain of feeling tired in the abdominal region rather than in the vocal organs. If so, it is only proof that they have worked the bellows properly up to the limit of actual weariness, and the utility of this mode of breathing is evidenced by the fact that, while the abdominal muscles feel the strain of continued effort, the vocal organs themselves are unwearied. When the phenomena of respiration are all considered, abdominal breathing will recommend itself to the judgment of the student, as being the method designed by the Creator for habitual use.

The relation and functions of the three modes of respiration described above may be seen by taking a full breath. Let the student stand in the military position, place the arms akimbo, throw back the head, and inhale the air to the fullest capacity of his lungs. If the inhalation is made slowly and each step in the process is accurately observed, the following facts will be noted: The front wall of the abdomen protrudes, the sides move outward, and finally a conscious effort is made to lift the shoulders and make room for a little more air at the top of the chest. In other words, the lungs are inflated from the bottom upwards, and in exhaling the full breath the various movements described are reversed in regular order.

The Full Breath.

These facts led Lennox Browne and Emil Behnke, in their excellent treatise on *Voice, Song, and Speech*

(New York, Putnams), to lay down the following rule: "The criterion of correct inspiration is an increase of the size of the abdomen and of the lower part of the chest; whoever draws in the abdomen and raises the upper part of the chest breathes wrongly."

Rule for Breathing.

Breathing exercises are of great value, most easily practised, and give excellent results. It is not necessary to have an elaborate system. As I have stated, the nostrils are the proper organs of breathing. Every breath of pure air a man inhales through his nostrils is a breath of life.

Breathing Exercises.

One exercise, repeated fifty or a hundred times a day, requiring no more than ten minutes altogether, is of the greatest advantage. It consists in inhaling through the nostrils a deep breath, retaining it a few seconds, and then, with the lips adjusted as if one intended to whistle, expelling it slowly through the contracted orifice. If students would rise from their studies, bookkeepers from their desks, women from their sewing or reading, two or three times a day, and take from fifteen to thirty such breaths of as pure air as possible, the result upon their health would be beneficial.

For purposes of general instruction and for daily practice, the following breathing exercises are appended.

Stand erect with one foot about three inches in advance of the other, and the heels forming an angle of forty-five degrees. Let the weight rest principally upon the rear foot, changing the position of the feet with each full breath. Place the

hands upon the sides, with the fingers resting upon the abdominal muscles in front and the thumbs upon the muscles of the back. Extend the chest and inhale very slowly through the nose, filling the lungs completely. Exhale in the same manner, and repeat twelve times, being careful to stop the moment any signs of fatigue or dizziness appear. This exercise will tend to correct any false habit of respiration which may have been formed.

Deep Breathing.

Closely related to the foregoing is an exercise intended to economize breath in vocal utterance. Take the same position as before, and inhale in exactly the same manner. Place the organs of vocalization in position to say H and exhale the breath in a prolonged H-H-H-H. Repeat several times, endeavoring to extend the period of expiration. The H-sound should be scarcely audible, and a flame placed before the mouth should flare only in the slightest degree as the air passes through the lips directly upon it.

Effusive Breathing.

Inhale as in the exercises above. Exhale with the whispered aspirate more audible, and in separate expulsions. In practice try to increase the number of expulsions. This exercise, besides increasing control over the respiratory organs, will be found of value in the production of several forms of speech, notably the effu ive mode of delivery.

Expulsive Breathing.

Fill the lungs a little more rapidly, and stand firmly as if for sustained effort. Exhale in a sudden expulsion of the breath the whispered H. It will

assume the character of the sound heard in the puff of the locomotive, and a full inflation of the lungs should be sufficient for two marked expulsions.

Explosive Breathing.

In connection with these breathing exercises certain muscular movements will be found beneficial. They may be interspersed among the breathings, and will serve as a relief and diversion.

Stand in the military position, firm and erect. Place the open hands upon the ribs as high up and as far back as possible. While in this position, move the elbows back and forth and slide the palms upward and downward over the ribs; at the same time gently swinging the head back and forth and from side to side.

Kneading the Side Muscles.

Assume the same position as in the preceding exercise. Inhale slowly through the lips placed to sound the letter F, and exhale in the prolonged sound of H. Having taken a full, deep breath, retain the air in the lungs for about ten seconds, resisting every impulse to expel it. The purpose of this exercise is to acquire control over the vocal organs. The exercise, when carefully performed, is extremely beneficial. It will expand the air-cells of the lungs and strengthen them in every part. The time of holding the breath should at first be limited to five seconds. After practice the time of retention may be materially lengthened. This exercise should never be used immediately before or after meals. Two or three retentions performed in the middle of the forenoon and of the afternoon will be quite enough for practical purposes.

Holding the Breath.

CHAPTER II

PRONUNCIATION, ARTICULATION, FLEXIBILITY, AND CONTROL

Importance of the Subject—Bell's Vowel Table—Principles of Pronunciation—Articulation by Means of the Tongue, Lips, Teeth, and Nose—Guilmette's Vocal Chart—Exercises in Articulation—Flexibility and Control of the Voice.

HAVING now considered the structure and uses of the vocal organs, the next subject to claim attention is their application in producing speech. Language or words consist of elementary sounds united and blended into complex forms. These are open sounds or vowels, and closed sounds or consonants. To the eye they are represented by letters, and to the ear by tones. When sounded separately, they are produced by a single impulse of the voice, but in combination the effort is complex, and in either case is called pronunciation. Clearly and effectively done, the vocal act is designated as correct articulation, and when many words are spoken successively, with due regard to their emphasis and inflection, the speaker is said to have flexibility of utterance.

Introductory.

Accurate pronunciation, according to Webster, is sounding words articulately. It consists in reproducing vocally every vowel and consonant of which a word is composed. For purposes of practical study, therefore, it becomes necessary to examine these elementary sounds of language.

Pronunciation.

The open or vowel sounds in English are fourteen in number. They are best represented in the following table compiled by Professor Bell. The sounds are designated arbitrarily by number and the words introduced show the various combinations of letters used to represent them. The vowels are sounded with the vocal organs open, and are pure tones. The student must be able to associate each sound with its number.

Vowel Sounds.

THE VOWEL TABLE.—*Bell*

Sound 1.—Spelled with ee (meet), ea (eat), ey (key), ie (chief), ei (receive), i (marine), etc.

" 2.—Spelled with i (hit), y (hymn), u (busy), o (women), e (pretty).

" 3.—Spelled with a (mate), ei (eight), ai (straight), ea (great), ay (may), etc.

" 4.—Spelled with e (met), u (bury), a (any), ea (dead), ai (said), eo (feoff), etc.

" 5.—Spelled with a (fat), ai (plaid), ua (aquatic), etc.

" 6.—Spelled with ea (pearl), e (her), y (myrrh), i (sir), u (hurt), o (worse), etc.

" 7.—Spelled with a (last),—a in monosyllables before ss, st, sk, sp, etc.

Sound 8.—Spelled with a (arm, ah, etc.), au (laundry), ea (heart), e (sergeant), etc.

" 9.—Spelled with u (up), o (come), oe (does), oo (blood),—*the* and *a* before a consonant.

" 10.—Spelled with o (log), a (what), au (laurel).

" 11.—Spelled with a (all), o (form), au (maul), aw (awl), etc.

" 12–14.—Spelled with o (slow), eau (beau), e (sew), ou (dough), oe (hoe), eo (yeoman), etc.

" 13.—Spelled with o (wolf), ou (would), u (pull), oo (book),—*to* when obscure.

" 14.—Spelled with o (move), oo (pool), e (grew), u (truce), oe (shoe), etc.

" 8–1.—Spelled with i (might), y (my), ai (aisle), ei (height), ie (lie), etc.

" 11–1.—Spelled with oi (oil), oy (boy).

" 8–14.—Spelled with ow (now), ou (bough), etc.

" 2–14.—Spelled with u (flute), eau (beauty), e (new), eu (feud), ui (suit), etc.

" 9–14.—Spelled with u (use, education), etc.

Some of the sounds contained in this table are double. That is, they are formed by merging two vowel sounds into one, and are termed diphthongs. Such are the combinations of 8 and 1, 2 and 14, etc., and they are produced by gliding one pure tone into another.

Repeat the following quotation. Pronounce clearly. Pause after each word, and number vowel

sound contained therein as it is numbered in Bell Vowel Table:

"When a great man falls, the nation mourns; when a patriarch is removed, the people weep. Ours, my associates, is no common bereavement. The chain which linked our hearts with the gifted spirits of former times has been suddenly snapped. The lips from which flowed those living and glorious truths that our fathers uttered are closed in death."

Application of Vowel Table.

The English consonant sounds are twenty-five in number, and are classified according to the mode of utterance. Consonants are interrupted vocal sounds, one or more of the organs of the voice being closed in their production. They are shown in the following schedule from Raymond's "Orator's Manual":

Consonant Sounds.

CONSONANT TABLE

I. Sub-vocals that have no corresponding aspirates.

a.—In these, the breath passes through the nostrils:

The lips are closed in M in moon.

The lips are open in N in noon, and the tongue's tip touches upper inside front gums.

The lips are open in NG in anguish, and the tongue's middle touches the palate.

b.—In these the breath passes through the mouth:

The tip of the tongue in L in dwell touches the mouth's roof just behind the upper inside front gums, and the breath passes around the tip at either side of the tongue.

The tip of the tongue in Y in your is down, its sides touch the upper side teeth, and the breath passes between its middle and the palate.

The sides of the tongue in R in row touch the upper side teeth, the tip is turned upward and backward, and the breath passes between it and a point in the mouth's roof about half an inch behind the gums.

The tongue in R in core is slightly farther forward.

II. Sub-vocals with their corresponding aspirates.

a.—In these the breath is checked and confined till the organs separate to give it explosive vent. This separation is in the

SUB-VOCALS preceded by vocalization	but in the	ASPIRATES preceded by no vocalization.

In B bab and P pap the lips join.

In V van and F fan the lower lip touches the upper teeth.

In D dole and T toll the tongue's tip touches the upper inside front gums.

In J jar and CH char the tongue's tip touches the mouth's roof just behind upper inside front gums.

In G gay and K kay the tongue's middle touches the corresponding palate.

b.—In these the breath is allowed to escape gradually between the organs mentioned.

SUB-VOCALS accompanied	ASPIRATES [redacted]mpanied [redacted]ation.

In W way and WH whey between the lips pushed forward.

In TH this and TH thistle between the tongue's tip and the teeth.

In Z zone and S sown between the tongue's tip and upper inside front gums.

In Z azure and SH sure between the tongue's tip and roof of mouth behind gums.

In H hah between the tongue's middle and palate.

Notice also that the position of the lips and tongue is the same in M, B, and P; N, D, and T; and NG, G, and K.

As a guide to the accurate pronunciation of many common words, the introduction to Webster's Unabridged Dictionary is invaluable. Some of the rules there laid down are subjoined in condensed form as an aid to the student. The section numbers of the Dictionary are retained, and the vowel sounds conform with the Bell Table.

Principles of Pronunciation.

49. In monosyllables, and in accented syllables before r final or r followed by any other consonant, and in the derivatives of such words, A has sound 8. But if, under similar circumstances, the r is followed by another r or a vowel, A has sound 5. For example, in barn and harmful, A has sound 8; but in harrow and arable, sound 5.

61. In monosyllables ending in ff, ft, ss, st, sk, sp, and a few in nce and nt, A has sound 7; e. g., chaff, craft, class, last, ask, clasp, chance, and chant.

111. In monosyllables, and in accented syllables before r final or r followed by any other consonant, and in the derivatives of such words, O has sound 11; but if, under similar circumstances, the r is followed by another r, or a vowel, O has sound 10; e. g., form and morning have sound 11; but borrow and oracle, sound 10.

136. When preceded by r, in an accented syllable, long U or its equivalent loses its initial y sound and has simply sound 14; e. g., true, grew, fruit, etc., are pronounced exactly as if spelled troo, groo, froot, etc.

42. As a general rule, A and O in unaccented syllables ending in a consonant verge toward sound 9. This rule is frequently violated in pronouncing such words as salvation, immigrant, provost, etc.

108. In an unaccented syllable final I has more commonly sound 2, but it generally has sound 8–1 in the initial syllables, i, bi, chi, cli, cri, pri, and tri; e. g., in direct, digest, civilization, etc., the final i's have sound 2, but in idea, biology, chimera, climax, criterion, primary, and triumph, the final i's have sound 8–1.

135. In the terminations ture, dure, and ure, Webster gives to the U its distinct y sound. The sound of ch soft and that of j are especially to be avoided in such a case; e. g., not litera-chewer, and ejewcation, but literatyour and edyoucation.

221. C has the sound of z in four words, suffice, sacrifice, sice, and discern.

227. As a general rule N has the sound of ng before g, k, and the equivalents of k (c, q, ch);

e. g., anger, canker, conquer, and anchor, are pronounced as if spelled ang-ger, cang-ker, cong-quer, and ang-chor.

260. Webster gives to S the sound of z in the initial syllable, dis, of ten words: disarm, disease, disaster, discern, disheir, dismal, dishonest, dishonor, disown, dissolve.

271. X before an accented vowel has the sound of gz, otherwise that of ks; e. g., exile (eksile), but example (egzample).

Articulation is the correct joining together of the vocal elements of a word. It has generally been thought to mean clear enunciation, but articulation might be perfectly distinct and still wrong. Accuracy, as well as clearness, is required.

Articulation.

"In just articulation," says Gilbert Austin, "the words are not hurried over, nor precipitated syllable over syllable; nor, as it were, melted together into a mass of confusion; they are neither abridged nor prolonged, nor swallowed nor forced, nor shot from the mouth; they are not trailed nor drawled, nor let slip out carelessly, so as to drop unfinished. They are delivered from the lips as beautiful coins newly issued from the mint, deeply and accurately impressed, perfectly finished."

Upon the value of good articulation there can be no difference of judgment. It adds to the polish and power of speech, and is, in itself, an indication of scholarship. It is immediately observed and admired even by those whose shortcomings in the same direction are frequent and grievous.

The fundamental principle of articulation is to produce the vowel and consonant sounds by the organs of the mouth and not by those of the throat. The following helpful exercises should be diligently practised often under supervision of the teacher. Use Mouth and Lips.

EXERCISES IN ARTICULATING THE VOWELS

a in *ah.* Draw in the breath as if about to yawn; then with the teeth about three fourths of an inch apart, lips drawn back from them, mouth open laterally at the back, tongue drawn down with its middle side-edges slightly curled up, throw forward the tone, forming the sound just forward of the palate.

a in *all.* Same as above. With the lips less drawn back, lower jaw pushed forward a little, tongue relaxed in lower part of mouth, its tip touching lower teeth, form the sound just under the palate.

a in *at.* Draw in the breath naturally, organs as in last exercise. With the centre of the tongue more elevated and its side-edges up, form the sound in front of the palate.

a in *ale.* Same. With mouth less open and the centre of the tongue more elevated, its side-edges touching the upper back teeth, form the sound between these.

e in *eve.* With the upper and lower teeth near (not touching) each other, lower jaw slightly projecting, lips apart, and sides of the mouth drawn slightly back, showing the eye-teeth, tongue against upper

back teeth, its tip almost touching the roof of the mouth just back of the upper front inside gums, form the sound between the tip of the tongue and the roof of the mouth just back of the upper eye-teeth.

e in *end.* Same position as in *a* in *ale,* but uttered more rapidly and with the tip of the tongue slightly lower down.

e in *her.* Same position as in the last, except that the tongue is curled up against the roof of the mouth about one quarter of an inch back of the upper front teeth. The final *r* is then formed by pushing the tip of the tongue against the roof of the mouth, leaving a small space between the two.

i in *it.* Same position as in *e* in *eve,* but uttered more rapidly, with the front of the tongue slightly lower down.

i in *ice.* Begin with the position of *a* in *ah,* and pass at once to that of *i* in *it.*

o in *no.* With the teeth apart as in *ah,* but the lips pushed over them, forming an oval in front, the cheeks slightly drawn in, the lower jaw thrust forward, and the tongue drawn back, form the sound just behind the upper and lower front gums.

o in *on.* Same position as in *a* in *ah,* but uttered more rapidly.

oo in *book* and *ooze.* Take the position of *o* in *no,* then push the lips nearer together and farther forward in *book,* and still farther forward in *ooze.* The sound in both cases is made between the lips.

oi in *oil.* Begin with the position of *a* in *all,* and pass at once to that of *i* in *in.*

ou in *our*. Begin with the position of *o* in *on*, and pass at once to that of *oo* in *ooze*.

u in *up*. With the teeth as near together as in *e* in *eve*, the lips apart in a natural position, the tongue relaxed and full, its tip against the lower front teeth, make the sound just under the uvula, by a slight forward movement of the lower jaw.

u in *use*. Begin with the position of *e* in *eve*, and pass at once to that of *oo*.

u in *bull*. Same as *oo* in *look*, shortened.

a, e, i, o, u, y, aw, ew, ow, in *any, they, marine, fir, son, wolf, or, rude, my, very, law, few, now,* represent, respectively, the same sounds as are in *end, ale, eve, her, up, bull, all, ooze, ice, in, all, use, our.*

DR. GUILMETTE'S VOCAL CHART

Permutations of the Organic Vowel Sounds.

2 4 13 8 10

I E U A O

(The numbers indicate the sounds according to the Bell Vowel Table.)

I	II	III
i e u a o	i u e a o	i a e u o
i e u o a	i u e o a	i a e o u
i e a u o	i u a e o	i a u e o
i e a o u	i u a o e	i a u o e
i e o u a	i u o e a	i a o e u
i e o a u	i u o a e	i a o u e

IV	V	VI
i o e u a	e i u a o	i a e u o
i o e a u	e i u o a	i a e o u
i o u e a	e i a u o	i a u e o
i o u a e	e i a o u	i a u o e
i o a e u	e i o u a	i a o e u
i o a u e	e i o a u	i a o u e

VII	VIII	IX
e a i u o	e o i u a	e u i a o
e a i o u	e o i a u	e u i o a
e a u i o	e o u i a	e u a i o
e a u o i	e o u a i	e u a o i
e a o i u	e o a i u	e u o i a
e a o u i	e o a u i	e u o a i

X	XI	XII
u e i o a	u a i o e	u o i e a
u e i a o	u a i e o	u o i a e
u e a i o	u a e i o	u o e i a
u e a o i	u a e o i	u o e a i
u e o i a	u a o i e	u o a i e
u e o a i	u a o e i	u o a e i

XIII	XIV	XV
a i e u o	a e i u o	a u i e o
a i e o u	a e i o u	a u i o e
a i u e o	a e u i o	a u e i o
a i u o e	a e u o i	a u e o i
a i o e u	a e o i u	a u o i e
a i o u e	a e o u i	a u o e i

XVI	XVII	XVIII
a o i e u	o i e u a	o e i u a
a o i u e	o i e a u	o e i a u
a o e i u	o i u e a	o e u i a
a o e u i	o i u a e	o e u a i
a o u i e	o i a e u	o e a i u
a o u e i	o i a u e	o e a u i

XIX	XX
o u i e a	o a i e u
o u i a e	o a i u e
o u e i a	o a e i u
o u e a i	o a e u i
o u a i e	o a u i e
o u a e i	o a u e i

Pronounce the vowels in these tables with a firm, open sound.

Unite them with various consonants—ba, be, bi, bo, bu; ka, ke, ki, ko, ku, etc.

Practise them on different degrees of pitch—high, low, medium.

Run the musical scale with the above syllables.

THE LABIALS, LINGUALS, AND LARYNGEALS

T L K R	L T K R	K R T L
T L R K	L T R K	K R L T
L K T R	R L T K	R T L K
L K R T	R L K T	R T K L
K L T R	T R L K	R K T L
K L R T	T R K L	R K L T
T K L R	K T L R	L R T K
T L K R	K T R L	L R K T

P	F	B	G
P	F	G	B
F	B	P	G
F	B	G	P
B	F	P	G
P	B	F	G
P	B	G	F
F	P	B	G

F	P	G	B
B	F	G	P
P	G	F	B
P	G	B	F
B	P	F	G
B	P	G	F
G	F	P	B
B	G	F	P

B	G	P	F
G	P	F	B
G	P	B	F
G	F	P	B
G	B	P	F
G	B	F	P
F	G	P	B
F	G	B	P

P	T	K	B
P	T	B	K
B	K	P	T
B	K	T	P
B	P	T	K
B	P	K	T
P	K	T	B
P	K	B	T

T	K	P	B
T	K	B	P
T	B	P	K
T	B	K	P
P	B	T	K
P	B	K	T
T	P	K	B
T	P	B	K

K	T	B	P
K	T	P	B
K	B	P	T
K	B	T	P
K	P	T	B
K	P	B	T
B	T	P	K
B	T	K	P

Place the vocal organs in position to form the consonants in these tables, without uttering any sound. Practise until the position is fully learned.

Utter the consonants in a forcible whisper.

Sound them with various vowels—bo, fo, co, to, lo, so, etc.

Sound the same combinations explosively.

Sound the consonants b, d, g, v, t, several times in succession.

Unite the above consonants with a vowel, and repeat forcibly.

Common Faults.

A common fault in articulation is to slur over the single elements of which words are composed, and another is to introduce a subdued vowel sound between certain consonants

or combinations of consonants. The following exercises will aid in the correction of such habits:

EXERCISES IN ARTICULATION

Bl, cl, fl, gl, pl, sl, spl.

Blame, bleed, blow, blest. Claim, clean, clime, close, clot. Flame, flee, fly, flit. Glare, gleam, glide, gloss. Place, plea, ply, please. Slay, sleep, slide, slew. Spleen, splice, splay.

Br, cr, dr, fr, gr, pr, spr, tr, str, shr.

Brave, bread, brink. Crave, creep, cried, crust. Drain, dream, dry, drop. Frame, free, fro, freeze. Grain, green, grind, ground. Pray, preach, pry, proud. Spray, spring, sprung, sprang. Trace, tree, try, trust, track, tread, trip, true. Stray, street, strife, strength. Shrine, shroud, shrub, shriek.

Sm, sn, sp, st.

Small, smite, smote. Snare, sneer, snow, snug. Space, speed, spike, spear. Stay, steer, stile, stop.

Ld, lf, lk, lm, lp, ls, lt, lve.

Bold, hailed, tolled. Elf, wolf, gulf, sylph. Milk, silk, bulk, hulk. Elm, helm, whelm, film. Help, gulp, alp, scalp. Falls, tells, toils. Fault, melt, bolt, hilt. Elve, delve, revolve.

M'd, ms, nd, ns, nk, nce, nt.

Maim'd, claim'd, climb'd, gloom'd. Gleams, streams, climes, stems. And, band, hand, land, lined, moaned. Gains, dens, gleans, suns. Bank, dank, drink, link. Dance, glance, hence, ounce. Ant, want, gaunt, point.

Rb, rd, rk, rm, rn, rse, rs (rz), rt, rve, rb'd, rk'd, rm'd, rn'd, rs'd, rst, rv'd.

Barb, orb, herb, curb ; barb'd, orb'd, curb'd, disturb'd. Hard, herd, hir'd, board, lord, gourd, bar'd, barr'd. Hark, lark, jerk, stork, work; mark'd, jerk'd, work'd. Arm, harm, farm, alarm; arm'd, harm'd, alarm'd. Earn, learn, scorn, thorn, burn, turn, worn, shorn; earn'd, scorn'd, burn'd, turn'd. Hearse, verse, force, horse; dar'st, burst, first, worst; hears'd, vers'd, forc'd, hors'd. Bars, bears, hears, wears, pairs, tares, snares, repairs. Mart, dart, start, hurt, pert, girt. Carve, curve, serve, starve; carv'd, curv'd, serv'd, starv'd.

Sm, s'n, sp, st, ss'd, ks, ct, k'd, ft, f'd, pt, p'd, p'n, k'n, d'n, v'n, t'n.

Chasm, schism, prism, criticism, witticism, patriotism. Reas'n, seas'n, ris'n, chos'n. Asp, clasp, grasp, wasp, lisp, crisp. Vast, mast, lest, dost, must, lost, mist; pass'd, bless'd, gloss'd, miss'd. Makes, quakes, likes, looks, streaks, rocks, crooks. Act, fact, respect, reject; wak'd, lik'd, look'd, rock'd. Waft, oft, left, sift; quaff'd, scoff'd,

laugh'd. Apt, wept, crept; sipp'd, supp'd, slop'd, pip'd, popp'd. Op'n, rip'n, weap'n, happ'n. Tak'n, weak'n, wak'n, tok'n, drunk'n. Sadd'n, gladd'n, lad'n, burd'n, hard'n, gard'n. Grav'n, heav'n, riv'n, ov'n, ev'n, giv'n, wov'n. Bright'n, tight'n, whit'n.

L'st, m'st, nst, rst, dst, rd'st, rm'dst, rn'dst.

Call'st, heal'st, till'st, fill'st, roll'st, pull'st. Arm'st, charm'st, form'st, harm'st. Canst, runn'st, gain'st, against (agenst). Durst, worst, erst, first, bar'st, barr'st, hir'st. Midst, call'dst, fill'dst, roll'dst. Heard'st, guard'st, reward'st, discard'st. Arm'dst, harm'dst, form'dst, charm'dst. Learn'dst, scorn'dst, burn'dst, turn'dst.

Ble, ple, dle, rl, bl'd, pl'd, dl'd, rl'd.

Able, feeble, bible, double; troubl'd, babbl'd, bubbl'd, doubl'd. Ample, steeple, triple, topple; tripl'd, toppl'd, dappl'd, crippl'd. Cradle, saddle, idle, bridle; cradl'd, saddl'd, idl'd, swaddl'd. Marl, hurl, whirl; world, hurl'd, whirl'd, furl'd.

Ngs, ng'st, ng'd, ng'dst.

Rings, wrongs, hangs, songs; hang'st, sing'st, wrong'st, bring'st; wrong'd, hang'd, clang'd; wrong'dst, throng'dst.

TO DEVELOP THE ORGANS OF ARTICULATION

1. Drop the jaw lazily, energy withdrawn.
2. Move jaw from side to side, energy withdrawn.

3. Throw jaw forward and back.
4. Repeat rapidly IK, IP, IT.
5. Repeat rapidly several times in succession MA, PA, BE, BY, BO, BA, ME.
6. AH GOO; repeat rapidly several times in succession, using cheek muscles.
7. Force breath through lips for strengthening lip and cheek muscles, those muscles resisting.
8. Run out tongue; draw it back and with it touch the uvula or palate.
9. Fold back tip of the tongue with the aid of the teeth.
10. Fold over sides of tongue.
11. Groove tongue.
12. Make lapping movement of tongue.
13. E-DEE, E-DO; repeat rapidly.
14. Trill R.
15. Trill R, running the scale.
16. Withdraw all muscular tenseness from tongue.
17. Repeat rapidly several times in succession: PRE, PRA, PRI, PRO, trilling the R.
18. Repeat rapidly several times in succession: LE, LAY, LI, LO.
19. Repeat rapidly several times in succession: DO, DID, DID, DID, DID, DO.
20. Repeat Exercises 17, 18, and 19 on successive notes of the scale.
21. Place two fingers edgewise between the teeth, the tip of the tongue resting against the back of the lower teeth, and articulate I as in ill and E as in ell, keeping the tongue depressed.

22. Three fingers between teeth, tongue as in 21; articulate A as in art, U as in pull, O as in on.
23. Dr. Guilmette's Vocal Chart, each element distinctly articulated in a whisper.
24. Vocal chart distinctly articulated with voice.

Practise the combinations AP, ATH, AT, ITH, ISH, ISS, IP, IK, IT, ETH, EZ, ESS.

Practise speaking in a whisper with active movements of the lips and tongue as though conversing with a deaf-mute.

Close the lips with the teeth slightly separated, distend the mouth laterally as in a broad grin. Without separating the lips, quietly extend them outward as if to pronounce OO. Withdraw the lips to first position and repeat.

Constantly practise words containing open or long vowels, articulating the sounds near the lips and holding the throat wide open.

Practise A, E, O, OO, AU, etc.

Move the jaws actively and pronounce A, AI, OI, OO, OU, repeating several times in succession.

Sound the words below, giving prominence to the consonants, with a separate action of the diaphragm for each. B-I-B-E, B-A-B-E, etc.

bibe	croking	doodle	jujube
babe	cease	gawky	lull
booby	changing	gargoyle	loll
bauble	church	gong	loathe
bar	dod	glowing	love
culture	daud	judge	lave
cocoon	died	jejune	more

mine	none	thou	wayward
maim	nine	tight	wave
moon	name	thaw	zone
mother	rare	through	zeugma
mouthing	rule	tote	
noun	rural	vault	

Exercise the lips and diaphragm actively, and repeat GEE, GECH, GICK, GACK, GOCK; THEE, THECK, THICK, THACK, THOCK. Repeat with W, QU, S, T, D, SH, and SP.

Practise the clear and resonant articulation of the following words:

arm	crow	hold	scorn	twelfth
bathe	crackle	imprison	sky	throttle
bask	dream	nymphs	spy	throw
brow	grow	prow	spry	wrong
crack	helms	prompt	thousandth	

The exercises in the foregoing section furnish an excellent drill for keeping the voice in good condition or for developing vocal power when a speaker is out of practice.

Flexibility.

Flexibility of utterance consists of the final subordination of all the vocal apparatus to the will, so that each organ in turn or all combined shall respond without great effort to the production of any tone or variation of sound required. Practically, therefore, flexibility is control of the voice.

How Attained.

Defining flexibility of the voice as the ability to move from one pitch to another with ease and promptness, Mr. E. M. Kirby offers the following suggestions on how to attain it:

"Mind and body should be in a free attitude; the middle pitch of voice should be found and used as the common point about which the voice is allowed to play. If the speaker uses the lower half of the vocal range, positive, long downward slides will be impossible; on the other hand, if the upper half is used, the command of long upward slides is impossible.

"By using the middle pitch we have a range above and below that may be utilized. The whole range of voice is necessary to the production of vocal climax, to variety and character of expression, now calling for the thunder of the lower range, anon for the lightning of the upper. All thunder and no lightning is very monotonous; all lightning is a terrible strain upon both speaker and audience."

But vocal production is physical effort, and that can be developed and maintained only by constant practice, and to that end we append the following exercises compiled by Prof. J. Scott Clark:

Vigilance Required.

1. Taking the syllable ah, intone the musical notes C, D, E, F; E, D, C.
2. G, A, B, C; B, A, G.
3. Scale (A as in art); middle C to C above.
4. Chromatic scale (A as in art); middle C to C above.
5. Chromatic scale (A as in art); up and down rapidly upon one breath.
6. Trill the scale.
7. Same with three notes.
8. Sing scale in different keys.

9. Intone the sentence, "Will you go?" and gradually bring it into the speaking voice, preserving the same key, from middle C down to E below.
10. Carry the same sentence from middle C up to middle E.
11. Use all the interjections upon different keys, trying to color them with different emotions.
12. Count from 1 to 20 or more, passing regularly upward but rising on each successive count less than half a musical interval.
13. Reverse the process down the scale.
14. Count twenty, making falling inflections on only the numbers successively in each horizontal line of the following table:

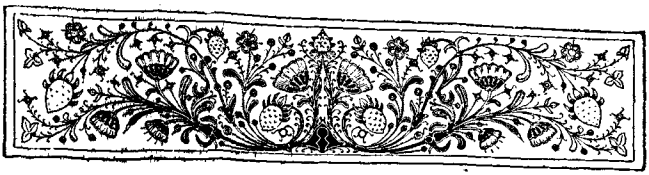
. . 3 . . . 7 . . . . 12 . . . . . 18 . 20
. 2 . . 5 . . . . 10 . . . . 15 . . . 19 .
1 . . 4 . 6 . . 9 . . . 13 . . . 17 18 . .
. 2 . . . . . 8 . . 11 . . 14 . 16 . . 19 .
. . . 4 . . . 8 9 . . 12 . . . 16 . . . 20.

15. The same as 14, but with rising inflections on only the numbers given.
16. The same, emphasizing only the numbers.
17. Run up and down the simple musical scale one octave on sound 8, making a rising inflection on each note.
18. The same with falling inflection.

Every exercise given in this chapter must be studied until it is thoroughly understood. An advantage is gained by memorizing the entire chapter. Having mastered the

Practice.

exercises the student must put them in practice. He must devote a certain portion of each day to drill. Such tables as the Bell Vowel Table, the Consonant List, and the Guilmette Tables are not printed for reference purposes, they are designed for oral practice.



CHAPTER III

QUALITY OF VOICE

Definition and Classification—Initial, Orotund, Guttural, Aspirate, Pectoral, Asthenic, Nasal, Falsetto, Oral Qualities—Force: Natural, Explosive, and Effusive—Initial Tone—Weak, Very Weak, Strong, and Very Strong Force—Time: Initial, Slow, Very Slow, Quick, and Very Quick—Initial, Low, Very Low, High, and Very High Pitch—Illustrative Exercises and Selections.

IN public speaking effectiveness depends much upon the quality of voice used. The proper expression of different phases of emotion call for varying shades of tone, and to these have been given the general name,—quality. Classification and illustration will not only familiarize the student with the scientific aspects of the subject, but will enable him to appreciate and profit by criticism. The examples given will also be found valuable in perfecting the development of the voice, and in suiting its tone to all the shades of expression in oratorical discourse. In the following example it will be seen how different qualities of voice are required to give proper expression to the various sentiments uttered.

Introductory.

"The fiery eloquence of the field and the forum springs upon the vulgar idiom as a soldier leaps upon his horse. 'Trust in the Lord and keep your powder dry,' said Cromwell to his soldiers on the eve of battle. 'Silence! you thirty voices!' roars Mirabeau to a knot of opposers around the tribune. 'I 'd sell the shirt off my back to support the war!' cries Lord Chatham; and again: 'Conquer the Americans! I might as well think of driving them before me with this crutch!' 'I know,' says Kossuth, speaking of the march of intelligence, 'that the light has spread, and that even the bayonets think.' 'You may shake me if you please,' said a little Yankee constable to a stout, burly culprit whom he had come to arrest and who threatened violence, 'but recollect, if you do it, you don't shake a chap of five-feet-six; you 've got to shake the whole State of Massachusetts!' When a Hoosier was asked by a Yankee how much he weighed,—'Well,' said he, 'commonly I weigh about one hundred and eighty; but when I 'm mad I weigh a ton!' 'Were I to die at this moment,' wrote Nelson, after the battle of the Nile, '"More frigates!" would be found written on my heart.' The 'Don't give up the ship!' of our memorable sea-captain stirs the heart like the sound of a trumpet. Had he exhorted the men to fight to the last gasp in defense of their imperilled liberties, their altars, and the glory of America, the words might have been historic, but they never would have been quoted vernacularly." Illustration.

Initial quality is that used in unemotional discourse by any person with normal organs of speech. It differs in individuals, but is always the tone peculiar to that individual. The ideal initial tone or quality is pure, but whether pure Initial Quality.

or not it is natural. It is called initial because all others are modifications of it.

Illustrations.

"I should think myself a criminal, if I said anything to chill the enthusiasm of the youthful scholar, or to dash with any scepticism his longing and his hope. He has chosen the highest. His beautiful faith, and his aspiration, are the light of life. Without his fresh enthusiasm, and his gallant devotion to learning, to art, to culture, the world would be dreary enough."

"We all ride something. It is folly to expect us always to be walking. The cheapest thing to ride is a hobby; it eats no oats; it demands no groom; it breaks no traces; it requires no shoeing. Moreover, it is safest; the boisterous outbreak of the children's fun does not startle it; three babies astride it at once do not make it skittish. If, perchance, on some brisk morning it throws its rider, it will stand still till he climbs the saddle. For eight years we have had one tramping the nursery, and yet no accidents; though, meanwhile, his eye has been knocked out and his tail dislocated."

"The Lord is my shepherd; I shall not want. He maketh me to lie down in green pastures: he leadeth me beside the still waters. He restoreth my soul: he leadeth me in the paths of righteousness for his name's sake. Yea, though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death, I will fear no evil: for thou art with me; thy rod and thy staff they comfort me. Thou preparest a table before me in the presence of mine enemies: thou anointest my head with oil; my cup runneth over. Surely goodness and mercy shall follow me all the days of my life: and I will dwell in the house of the Lord forever."

"That mist which lies in the morning so softly in the valley, level and white, through which the tops of the trees rise as if through an inundation—why is it so heavy? and why does it lie so low, being yet so thin and frail that it will melt away utterly into splendor of morning, when the sun has shone on it but a few moments more? Those colossal pyramids, huge and firm, with outlines as of rocks, and strength to bear the beating of the high sun full on their fiery flanks—why are they so light?—their bases high over our heads, high over the heads of the Alps—why will these melt away, not as the sun rises, but as he descends, and leave the stars of twilight clear, while the valley vapor gains again upon the earth like a shroud?"

The orotund is a full, round, expansive tone, combining purity or smoothness with power. Owing to its resonance and volume, this tone is naturally employed to express solemn, dignified, or lofty thoughts. In forming this tone the student must be particular to sound the vowels fully. He must not constrict the mouth, but in that, as well as all other vocal organs, allow full expansion. The orotund should be employed with discrimination. It must not be used for entire selections, but in particular portions. The initial and not the orotund is the natural quality in Public Speaking.

Orotund Quality.

"Ye guards of liberty,
I 'm with you once again! I call to you
With all my voice!—I hold my hands to you
To show they still are free!"

Illustrations.

"It took Rome three hundred years to die; and our

death, if we perish, will be as much more terrific as our intelligence and free institutions have given to us more bone and sinew and vitality. May God hide me from the day when the dying agonies of my country shall begin! O thou beloved land, bound together by the ties of brotherhood, and common interest, and perils, live forever—one and undivided!"

"Pronounce, then, my Lords, the sentence which the law directs, and I will be prepared to hear it. I trust I shall be prepared to meet its execution. I hope to be able, with a pure heart and a perfect composure, to appear before a higher tribunal—a tribunal where a judge of infinite goodness, as well as of justice, will preside, and where, my Lords, many, many of the judgments of this world will be reversed."

"Our brethren are already in the field! Why stand we here idle? What is it that gentlemen wish? What would they have?—Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery?—Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take; but as for me, give me liberty or give me death!"

"Shall neither the cries of innocence expiring in agony, nor the tears of pitying spectators, nor the majesty of the Roman commonwealth, nor the fear of the justice of his country, restrain the licentious and wanton cruelty of a monster who, in confidence of his riches, strikes at the root of liberty, and sets mankind at defiance?"

"France, my Lords, has insulted you; she has encouraged and sustained America; and, whether America be wrong or right, the dignity of this country ought to spurn the officious insult of French interference. The

ministers and embassadors of those who are called rebels and enemies are in Paris; in Paris they transact the reciprocal interests of America and France. Can there be a more mortifying insult? Can even our Ministers sustain a more humiliating disgrace? Do they dare to resent it? Do they presume even to hint a vindication of their honor and the dignity of the state, by requiring the dismission of the plenipotentiaries of America?"

"Then through the vaulted chambers
Stern iron footsteps rang;
And heavily the sounding floor
Gave back the sabre's clang.
They stood around her—steel-clad men,
Moulded for storm and fight,
But they quailed before the loftier soul
In that pale aspect bright."

"But will the North agree to this? It is for her to answer the question. But, I will say, she cannot refuse, if she has half the love of the Union which she professes to have, or without justly exposing herself to the charge that her love of power and aggrandizement is far greater than her love of the Union. At all events, the responsibility of saving the Union rests on the North, and not on the South. The South cannot save it by any act of hers, and the North may save it without any sacrifice whatever, unless to do justice, and to perform her duties under the Constitution, should be regarded by her as a sacrifice."

Guttural, or as this harsh quality is sometimes called the throat tone, because it is produced "by the compression and partial closing of the throat above the glottis." It is very effective when used to express aversion, hatred, **Guttural Quality.**

horror, revenge, and other evil emotions. Unless used to express such feelings the guttural is a vocal fault, which, if persisted in, will injure an otherwise perfect delivery. Even when employed for specific and proper purposes, care must be taken to avoid excessive use. To acquire the guttural, repeatedly and distinctly enunciate the consonants g, j, k, r, t.

Illustrations.

"*Antony.*—Villains! you did not threat, when your vile daggers
Hacked one another in the sides of Cæsar!
You showed your teeth like apes, and fawned like hounds,
And bowed like bondmen, kissing Cæsar's feet;
Whilst damned Casca, like a cur, behind,
Struck Cæsar on the neck.—Oh! flatterers!"

"But you, wretch! you could creep through the world unaffected by its various disgraces, its ineffable miseries, its constantly accumulating masses of crime and sorrow;—you could live and enjoy yourself while the noble-minded were betrayed,—while nameless and birthless villains trod on the neck of the brave and long-descended:—you could enjoy yourself, like a butcher's dog in the shambles, battening on garbage, while the slaughter of the brave went on around you! This enjoyment you shall not live to partake of: you shall die, base dog!—and that before yon cloud has passed over the sun!"

Aspirate Quality.

This whispered quality—"a tone almost flooded with breath"—is used to express intense feeling, alarm, awe, caution, fear, surprise, and generally suppressed emotion. As the use of the aspirate congests the mucous membrane,

the vocalist should, after prolonged use of this quality, produce and repeat several times the muscular contractions usual to swallowing.

" *Macbeth.*—Didst thou not hear a noise ?
Lady M.—I heard the owl scream, and the crickets cry. Did not you speak ? **Illustrations.**
Macbeth.—When ?
Lady M.—Now.
Macbeth.—As I descended ?
Lady M.—Ay.
Macbeth.—Hark! Who lies i' the second chamber ?
Lady M.—Donalbain."

" 'And oh! when I am stricken, and my heart,
Like a bruised reed, is waiting to be broken,
How will its love for thee, as I depart,
Yearn for thine ear to drink its last deep token!
It were so sweet, amid death's gathering gloom,
To see thee, Absalom! ' "

Pectoral is a deep, hollow quality. It is a chest-tone, but in uttering it the lower part of the throat is active. The pectoral is used to express awe, horror, reverence, sublimity, and like emotions. **Pectoral Quality.**

" Some lay down
And hid their eyes, and wept; and some did rest
Their chins upon their clinched hands, and smiled; **Illustrations.**
And others hurried to and fro, and fed
Their funeral piles with fuel, and look'd up,
With mad disquietude, on the dull sky,

The pall of a past world; and then again
With curses, cast them down upon the dust,
And gnash'd their teeth, and howl'd."

"'Oh, I have passed a miserable night,
So full of ugly sights, of ghastly dreams,
That, as I am a Christian faithful man,
I would not spend another such a night,
Though 't were to buy a world of happy days,
So full of dismal terror was the time!'"

Asthenic Quality. A feeble, weak, thin quality of voice used to express the extremity of exhaustion, feebleness, fatigue, timidity, or weakness.

Illustrations.

"'I am dying; bend down till I touch you once more;
Don't forget me, old fellow: God prosper this war!
Confusion to enemies!—Keep hold of my hand,—
And float our dear flag o'er a prosperous land!
Where 's Wilson;—my comrade,—here, stoop down your head;
Can't you say a short prayer for the dying and dead?'"

"In the wigwam with Nokomis,
With those gloomy guests that watch'd her,
With the Famine and the Fever,
She was lying, the beloved,
She, the dying Minnehaha.
'Hark!' she said, 'I hear a rushing,
Hear a roaring and a rushing,
Hear the Falls of Minnehaha
Calling to me from a distance!'
'No, my child!' said old Nokomis,
''T is the night-wind in the pine-tree
'Look!' she said, 'I see my father

Standing lonely at his doorway,
Beckoning to me from his wigwam
In the land of the Dacotahs.'
'No, my child,' said old Nokomis,
''T is the smoke that waves and beckons.
'Ah!' she said, 'the eyes of Pauguk
Glare upon me in the darkness,
I can feel his icy fingers
Clasping mine amid the darkness!
Hiawatha! Hiawatha!' "

Nasal quality is used in impersonation. It is produced by forcing the breath into the nose instead of directly through the mouth. The nasal tone is a radical fault, and is discussed in the chapter on Vocal Defects.

Nasal Quality.

" 'The birds can fly, an' why can't I?
Must we give in,' says he with a grin,
'That the bluebird an' phœbe are
smarter 'n we be?
Jest fold our hands, an' see the swaller,
An' blackbird an' catbird beat us holler?
Does the little chatterin', sassy wren,
No bigger 'n my thumb, know more than men?
Jest show me that! ur prove 't the bat
Hez got more brains than 's in my hat,
An' I 'll back down, an' not till then!'
He argued further: 'Nur I can't see
What 's th' use o' wings to a bumblebee,
Fur to git a livin' with, more 'n to me;—
Ain't my business important 's his'n is?
That Icarus made a pretty muss,—
Him an' his daddy Dædalus;

Illustration.

They might 'a' know'd that wings made o' wax
Would n't stand sun-heat an' hard whacks:
I 'll make mine o' luther, ur suthin' or other.'
And he said to himself, as he tinker'd and plann'd,
'But I ain't goin' to show my hand
To mummies that never can understand
The fust idee that 's big an' grand.' "

Falsetto Quality.

This shrill quality is sometimes called the head tone. It is the result of "raising the pitch of the tone above the natural register." It is used in impersonating childishness, old age, etc.

Illustration.

"'Will the New Year come to-night, mamma? I 'm tired of waiting so,
My stocking hung by the chimney side full three long days ago.
I run to peep within the door, by morning's early light,
'T is empty still—oh! say, mamma, will New Year come to-night?' "

Oral Quality.

This weak, constrained quality is also known as the mouth tone. It is made in impersonating affectation.

Illustration.

"'Have you completed all the preparations necessary to Miss Sedley's departure, Miss Jemima?' asked Mrs. Pinkerton herself, that majestic lady, the Semiramis of Hammersmith, and the friend of Dr. Johnson.

"'The girls were up at four this morning, packing her trunks, sister,' replied Miss Jemima; 'we have made her a bow-pot.'—'Say a bouquet, sister Jemima,

't is more genteel. And I trust, Miss Jemima, that you have made a copy of Miss Sedley's account. This is it, is it? Very good—ninety-three pounds, four shillings. Be kind enough to address it to John Sedley, Esquire, and to seal this billet which I have written to his lady.' "

The qualities given in the preceding sections are capable of a variety of combinations. Almost any two may be combined in the expression of emotion. The study of the compound forms is of great practical value, and yet the theoretical treatment found in the books is little better than worthless. No hard-and-fast rule for the use of quality as expressing emotion can be laid down. The determination of the race for the best usage, and practice from living models as a means to the correct exposition of that usage, is the only method by which perfect use of the varieties of quality may be obtained. **Combination of Qualities.**

There are four divisions of Force. We call them Natural, Expulsive, Explosive, and Effusive. Each of these is further divided into Initial, Weak, Very Weak, Strong, and Very Strong. Force must not be confounded with Pitch. **Force.**

Natural Force is that given to all unemotional discourse. It is the Force used in ordinary conversation. **Natural Force.**

" Nature will be reported. All things are engaged in writing her history. The planet, the pebble, goes attended by its shadow. The rolling rock leaves its scratches on the mountain, the river its channels in the soil, the animal its bones in the stratum, the fern and leaf their modest epitaph in the **Illustration.**

coal. The falling drop makes its sculpture in the sand or stone; not a foot steps into snow, or along the ground, but prints in the characters, more or less lasting, a map of its march; every act of the man inscribes itself in the memories of his fellows, and in his own face."

Expulsive Force.

This is closely allied to Natural Force, yet differs from it in its "staccato" effect. It is the force of the forum and not of conversation. In the use of Expulsive Force, which is most effective in forensic argument, give each important syllable a distinct expulsion of the breath. The test of correct Expulsive Force is the ability to substitute a numerical count for each important syllable.

Illustration.

"Here I devote your senate! I 've had wrongs,
To stir a fever in the blood of age,
Or make the infant's sinews strong as steel.
This day 's the birth of sorrows!—This hour's work
Will breed proscriptions.—Look to your hearths, my lords,
For there henceforth shall sit, for household gods,
Shapes hot from Tartarus!—all shames and crimes;—
Wan Treachery, with his thirsty dagger drawn;
Suspicion, poisoning his brother's cup;
Naked Rebellion, with the torch and axe,
Making his wild sport of your blazing thrones;
Till Anarchy come down on you like Night
And Massacre seal Rome's eternal grave!"

Explosive Force.

Explosive Force is illustrated by the shout. It is used to express great excitement.

"Victory! victory! Their columns give way! Press them while they waver, and the day is ours!" Illustrations.
"Come, brands, ho! firebrands!—To Brutus! to Cassius!—burn all! Some to Decius' house, and some to Casca's; some to Ligarius'—away!"

There is a very close alliance between effusive and natural force. The effusive differs from the latter, in being applied to emotional, while the natural is used in unemotional expression. The effusive is the opposite of expulsive in that it corresponds to legato in music. It is a gentle, smooth, flowing force. Effusive Force.

"In a little while the knell for each one of us will cease, and we will slumber with our fathers. But with Christian faith we can see light even in the darkness of the tomb. From above come voices of loved ones calling us heavenward; and, listening, we long for the land of golden streets, celestial light, and unfading glory." Illustration.

Initial Tone is the ordinary tone of the normal individual. Initial Tone.

"The beams of the rising sun had gilded the lofty domes of Carthage, and given, with its rich and mellow light, a tinge of beauty even to the frowning ramparts of the outer harbor. Sheltered by the verdant shores, an hundred triremes were riding proudly at their anchors, their brazen beaks glittering in the sun, their streamers dancing in the morning breeze, while many a shattered plank and timber gave evidence of desperate conflicts with the fleets of Rome." Illustration.

Weak Force is less strong than Initial Force. It is used to express earnestness, sympathy, serenity.

Weak Force.

"Who but the locksmith could have made such music? A gleam of sun shining through the unsashed window and checkering the dark workshop with a broad patch of light fell full upon him, as though attracted by his sunny heart. There he stood working at his anvil, his face radiant with exercise and gladness, his sleeves turned up, his wig pushed off his shining forehead, the easiest, freest, happiest man in all the world."

Illustration.

Very Weak Force is used to produce the softest pure tone. In fear, pity, warning, etc.

Very Weak Force.

"*Brutus.*—How ill this taper burns! Ha, who comes here?
I think it is the weakness of mine eyes
That shapes this monstrous apparition.
It comes upon me—Art thou anything?
Art thou some god, some angel, or some devil,
That mak'st my blood cold, and my hair to stare?
Speak to me, what thou art."

Illustration.

Strong Force is the Force of the climax. A little more powerful than Initial Force.

Strong Force.

"They tell us, sir, that we are weak, unable to cope with so formidable an adversary. Sir, we are not weak, if we make a proper use of those means which the God of nature hath placed in our power. Three millions of people, armed in the holy cause of liberty, and in such a country as that which we possess,

Illustration.

are invincible by any force which our enemy can send against us.'"

Very Strong Force is the kind of Force used in producing the loudest tones. **Very Strong Force.**

"Mortified at the discovery, you try the sorry game of a trimmer in your progress to the acts of an incendiary; and observing, with regard to Prince and People, the most impartial treachery and desertion, you justify the suspicion of your sovereign by betraying the Government as you had sold the People. Such has been your conduct, and at such conduct every order of your fellow-subjects have a right to exclaim! The merchant may say to you, the constitutionalist may say to you, the American may say to you,—and I, I now say, and say to your beard, sir,—you are not an honest man!" **Illustration.**

Time is the measure of the progress of delivery. It is to be divided into five degrees of speed. **Time.**

Initial Time is used by the ordinary individual in ordinary conversation. **Initial Time.**

"When the mariner has been tossed for many days in thick weather, and on an unknown sea, he naturally avails himself of the first pause in the storm, the earliest glance of the sun, to take his latitude, and ascertain how far the elements have driven him from his true course. Let us imitate this prudence, and before we float farther on the waves of this debate, refer to the point from which we departed, that we may at least be able to conjecture where we now are." **Illustration.**

Slow Time is slower than Initial; used to express calmness, caution, deliberation, tranquillity, etc.

Slow Time.

"I am the resurrection and the life; he that believeth in me, though he were dead, yet shall he live: and whosoever liveth and believeth in me shall never die."

Illustration.

Very Slow Time is used to express admiration, awe, reverence.

Very Slow Time.

"O God, thou bottomless abyss!
Thee to perfection who can know?
O height immense! what words suffice
Thy countless attributes to show?"

Illustration.

Quick Time is faster than Initial; used to express vitality, life, energy.

Quick Time.

"Oh, young Lochinvar is come out of the West!
Through all the wide border his steed was the best;
And save his good broadsword he weapon had none;
He rode all unarmed and he rode all alone.
So faithful in love, and so dauntless in war,
There never was knight like the young Lochinvar."

Illustration.

Very Quick Time is used to express intensity.

Very Quick Time.

"Then I cast loose my buff-coat, each holster let fall,
Shook off both my jack-boots, let go belt and all,
Stood up in the stirrup, leaned, patted his ear,
Called my Roland his pet-name, my horse without peer,

Illustration.

Clapped my hands, laughed and sang, any noise, bad
or good,
Till at length into Aix Roland galloped and stood."

Pitch is the place of any tone, upon a scale of high and low. The importance of a thorough mastery of the technique of Pitch is well understood by the singer and is too little considered by the public speaker. Diligent practice in Pitch will give richness, flexibility, and compass to the voice. Pitch.

Pitch is divided into Initial, Low, Very Low, High, and Very High. These divisions, as those in Force and Time, are arbitrary, and yet some such classification is necessary.

Initial Pitch is that used by an ordinary individual in ordinary conversation. It is suitable for narration, description, and didactic expression. Initial Pitch.

"The city and republic of Carthage were destroyed by the termination of the third Punic War, about one hundred and fifty years before Christ." Illustration.

Low Pitch is lower than Initial; used to express austere, grave, or impressive thoughts. Low Pitch.

"In thoughts from the visions of the night, when deep sleep falleth on men, fear came upon me, and trembling, which made all my bones to shake. Then a spirit passed before my face; the hair of my flesh stood up: it stood still, but I could not discern the form thereof: an image was before mine eyes; there was silence, and I heard a voice saying, Shall mortal man be Illustration.

more just than God? Shall a man be more pure than his Maker?"

Very Low Pitch is the lowest usable Pitch. A distinction must be made between the lowest note it is possible for the speaker to take and the lowest he can use.

Very Low Pitch.

"It must be so,—Plato, thou reason'st well!—
Else, whence this pleasing hope, this fond desire,
This longing after immortality?
Or whence this secret dread and inward horror
Of falling into naught? Why shrinks the soul
Back on herself, and startles at destruction?—
'T is the Divinity that stirs within us;
'T is Heaven itself that points out an Hereafter,
And intimates Eternity to man.
Eternity!—thou pleasing, dreadful thought!
Through what variety of untried being,
Through what new scenes and changes must we pass!
The wide, th' unbounded prospect lies before me;
But shadows, clouds, and darkness rest upon it."

Illustration.

High Pitch is higher than Initial Pitch. It is used to express anxiety, joy, movement, warning.

High Pitch.

"Away they all went, twenty couple at once; hands half round and back again the other way; down the middle and up again; round and round in various stages of affectionate grouping; old top couple always turning up in the wrong place; new top couple starting off again as soon as they got there;

Illustration.

all top couples at last, and not a bottom one to help them!"

Very High Pitch is the highest usable Pitch. It is used to express intensity. **Very High Pitch.**

"Rejoice, you men of Angiers, ring your bells;
King John, your king and England's, doth approach. **Illustration**

. . . . . .

Open your gates and give the victors way."

CHAPTER IV

PHRASING OR GROUPING

Phrasing and Punctuation—Grouping Indispensable—False Phrasing—Rhetorical Pause—Short, Medium, Full, and Long Pauses—Stress: Initial, Medium, Terminal, Compound, Vibrant, and Thorough—Emphasis—Inflection and Slide—Semitone and Monotone—Examples and Selections.

THE primary aim in reading aloud or in speaking is the clear expression of ideas. To this end the proper phrasing or grouping of words is highly important. It is effected by means of the Rhetorical Pause, Emphasis, and Stress, which sustain a relation to spoken discourse similar to that which punctuation marks do to discourse which is written or printed. The points used by printers, however, indicate simply the grammatical parts of sentences to the eye, while oratorical phrasing enables the speaker or reader to communicate the exact meaning of thoughts to the ear. Punctuation points have little or nothing to do with rhetorical grouping.

Phrasing and Grouping.

"Add to your faith / virtue; / and to virtue / knowledge; / and to knowledge / temperance; / and to temperance / patience."

Illustration.

Phrasing or Grouping is vocal punctuation. It consists in arranging the words of discourse into groups, so as to convey their actual meaning, and in separating them by the use of pauses in utterance. Vocal Punctuation.

"My Lords, this ruinous and ignominious situation, where we cannot act with success, nor suffer with honor, calls upon us to remonstrate in the strongest and loudest language of truth, to rescue the ear of Majesty from the delusions which surround it. The desperate state of our arms abroad is in part known. No man thinks more highly of them than I do. I love and honor the English troops. I know their virtues and their valor. I know they can achieve anything except impossibilities; and I know that the conquest of English America is an impossibility." Illustrations.

"When Appius Claudius saw that deed, he shudder'd and sank down,
And hid his face, some little space, with the corner of his gown,
Till, with white lips and bloodshot eyes, Virginius totter'd nigh,
And stood before the judgment-seat, and held the knife on high."

The public speaker can make himself understood only by separating the elements of his thoughts, and placing them before his auditors so that they can be instantaneously comprehended. Argument, narration, description, or any other form of discourse is intelligible only through its integral ideas. Hence the necessity for grouping thoughts, and indicating the divisions between them. Phrasing Indispensable.

"Every evil that we conquer is a benefit to our souls. The Sandwich Islander believes that the strength and valor of the enemy he kills, passes into himself. Spiritually, it is so with us, for we gain strength from every temptation we resist. It is absurd to think of becoming good in anything without understanding and practising what we learn."

Illustrations.

"Could the genius of our country reveal to our astonished view the future glories which await the progress of confederated America; could he show us the countless millions who will swarm in the widespread valleys of the west, tasting of happiness and sharing the blessing of equal laws; could he unroll the pages of her history, and permit us to see the fierce struggles of her factions, the rapid mutations of her empire, the bloody fields of her triumphs and her disasters; could he crowd these awful visions upon our souls,—we should see that all the prosperity that awaits us depends on the supremacy of mind: on the cultivation of intellect: on the diffusion of knowledge and the arts."

False Phrasing.

Beware of False Phrasing, because it conveys the wrong sense. It is especially noticeable in the "sing-song" modes of reading poetry.

Illustrations.

False. "Listen, / my chil / dren, and you / shall hear
Of the mid/night ride / of Paul Revere."

Correct. "Listen, / my children, // and you shall hear /
Of the midnight ride / of Paul Revere."

False. "Comrades, / leave me / here a little, / while as yet / 't is early morn,
Leave me here, / and when you / want me / sound upon the bugle horn."

Correct. "Comrades, / leave me here a little, / while as yet 't is early morn, /
Leave me here, / and when you want me / sound upon the bugle horn."

False. "We have been fighting / at the edge / of the woods. Every / cartridge-box has been emptied / once and more, / and a fourth of the brigade has melted / away in dead / and wounded and missing. Not a cheer is heard in the whole / brigade.// We know that we are being / driven foot by foot, and that when we break / back once more / the line will go to pieces and the enemy will pour through the gap."

Correct. "We have been fighting at the edge of the woods. / Every cartridge-box has been emptied once / and more, / and a fourth of the brigade has melted away / in dead / and wounded / and missing. // Not a cheer is heard in the whole brigade. / We know that we are being driven foot by foot, / and that when we break back once more / the line will go to pieces / and the enemy will pour through the gap."

Phrasing, Time, and Movement.

Phrasing has nothing to do with the Time or Movement of delivery. Whether utterance be fast or slow, in high pitch or in low pitch, or in monotone, grouping of ideas and its accessories of *Emphasis, Stress, and the* Rhetorical Pause are required.

Illustration.

"On with the dance! let joy be unconfined. . . . .
To chase the glowing hours with flying feet;
But hark!—that heavy sound breaks in once more,
And nearer, clearer, deadlier than before!
Arm! arm! it is! it is!—the cannon's opening roar!"

In this example the time is fast in the first two lines, then slow, and finally fast again in the concluding line.

"Thou hast said in thine heart, I will ascend into heaven. I will be like the Most High; yet thou shalt be brought down to hell, and worms shall consume thy body."

Here the pitch as well as the time changes, but the phrasing is the same.

Rhetorical Pause.

Rhetorical Pause is the suspension of sound in speaking or reading to mark the separation of phrases. There are four kinds of Pause.—Short, Medium, Full, and Long.

Short Pause.

Short Pause indicates the phrasing of the simple thought-units in a sentence. It frequently occurs where the comma is placed in printed discourse, and is sometimes called the Grammatical Pause. But this is a misnomer, as it is required many times when no comma could be appropriately inserted. Short Pause is used to mark the separation of nominative and objective phrases, before the infinitive mood, relative pronouns, and conjunctions, after each word in a series, and to supply the missing word in an ellipsis.

"The passions of mankind # too frequently obscure their judgment."

"By virtuous conduct # we consult our own happiness."

Illustrations.

"Boldly and wisely # he upheld the constitution of his country."

"The rights of the living # he violated; the ashes of the dead # he desecrated and scattered to the winds."

"Whether 't is nobler in the mind # to suffer
The slings and arrows of outrageous fortune,
Or to take arms against a sea of troubles,
And by opposing # end them?"

"A good heart, a tender disposition, a charity that shuns the day, a modesty that blushes at its own excellence, such are the accomplishments # that please in youth # and endure in age."

"Such are the errors # which you must avoid; such the example # which you should emulate."

Medium Pause is employed to separate the parts of a complex or compound sentence. It precedes a climax and marks a parenthesis. **Medium Pause.**

"You do not expect from the manufacturer # the same dispatch in executing an order # that you do # from the shopkeeper and warehouseman." **Illustrations.**

"Thus the child came to be an old man, and his once smooth face was wrinkled # and his steps were slow and feeble, # and his back was bent. And he said: # 'My age is falling from me like a garment, # and I move towards the star as a child.'"

Full Pause marks the close of a completed thought. It corresponds to the period in printed discourse. **Full Pause.**

"Logicians may reason about abstractions, but the **Illustrations.** great mass of mankind can never feel an interest in them. # They must have images."

"The gain of money, or of something equivalent, is therefore specially termed profit in the language of men, because it readily supplies necessity, furnishes convenience, feeds pleasure, satisfies fancy and curiosity, promotes ease and liberty, supports honor and dignity, procures power, dependencies, and friendships, renders a man somewhat considerable in the world; and, in fine, enables one to do good."

Long Pause.

Long Pause indicates a break in the argument or narrative, and marks the close of a division of the subject-matter. It is the paragraph of vocal punctuation. This pause is used by public speakers to interrupt the train of thought and to enter upon something new, as when they change from eloquent appeal to calm discussion, or when they take up the line of argument again, after a digression.

Stress.

Stress is force particularly applied to words or syllables. It gives variety to utterance and aids especially in bringing out the finer shades of meaning employed in the portrayal of emotion or the impersonation of character. There are six kinds of Stress—Initial, Medium, Terminal, Compound, Vibrant, and Thorough Stress.

Initial Stress.

Initial Stress is force applied to the beginning of a word or syllable. It is the natural Stress used in all ordinary forms of speech, and is designated thus >.

Illustration.

"My ancestors came from old Sparta, and settled among the vine-clad rocks and citron groves of Cyrasella. My early life ran quiet as the brooks by which I sported; and when, at noon, I gathered

the sheep beneath the shade, and played upon the shepherd's flute, there was a friend, the son of a neighbor, to join me in the pastime. We led our flocks to the same pasture, and partook together our rustic meal."

Medium Stress is force applied to the middle of a word or syllable. It is used in the expression of pathos or sympathy with sorrow. Its distinguishing mark is <>. **Medium Stress.**

"Pity the sorrows of a poor old man,
Whose trembling limbs have borne him to your door." **Illustrations.**

"My soul to-day is far away,
Sailing the Vesuvian Bay;
My winged boat, a bird afloat,
Swims round the purple peaks remote."

Terminal Stress is the application of force at the end of a word or syllable. It is used in scorn, anger, impatience, and hatred, being marked <. **Terminal Stress.**

"Ye gods! ye gods! must I endure all this?" **Illustrations.**

"Oh horror! horror! horror!
Tongue nor heart can name thee!"

Compound Stress is a union of Initial and Terminal Stress, in which force is applied to both the beginning and ending of a word or syllable. Sarcasm, mockery, falsehood, insinuation, and derision require its use. It is designated thus $\hat{x}$. **Compound Stress.**

Illustrations. " Dost thou come here to whine?
To outface me with leaping in her grave."

" I do not rise to waste the night in words;
Let that Plebeian talk, 't is not my trade;
But here I stand for right,—let him show proofs,
For Roman right, though none, it seems, dare stand
To take their share with me. Ay, cluster there! "

Vibrant Stress is force applied intermittently to the sounding of a word or syllable. Its proper place is in expressing the emotions of grief, defiance, fright, or ecstasy. It is marked thus \/\/\.

Vibrant Stress.

" *Cassius.* Come, Antony, and young Octavius, come,
Revenge yourselves alone on Cassius,
For Cassius is aweary of the world;
Hated by one he loves; brav'd by his brother;
Check'd like a bondman; all his faults observ'd;
Set in a note-book, learn'd and conn'd by rote
To cast into my teeth."

Illustration.

Thorough Stress is the application of the same degree of force to all parts of a word or syllable. It is the Stress of command, warning, and grand appeal, being indicated thus ≈≈≈.

Thorough Stress.

" Boat ahoy! "

" Forward, file right, march! "

" Child lost! "

Illustrations.

" Ring the alarum bell!—Blow, wind! come, wrack!
At least we 'll die with harness on our back.'

Emphasis is the practical application of force or stress in order to accurately present the thought of

the speaker. It is effected not only by placing additional stress upon a single word, but by so adjusting force to the various words of a sentence as to bring out its exact meaning and to impress it upon the understanding. "A long, involved, and complicated sentence," says Professor Plumptre, "may be made to appear perfectly intelligible and perspicuous by the discriminating power of Emphasis." Emphasis.

Emphasis is applied by Inflection upon syllables and by Slide upon words. In the sentence: "Is George coming?" by giving to each word the downward slide, there is the expression of confidence that he is coming. By giving to each word the upward slide, the speaker indicates doubt or uncertainty regarding the fact, while by giving to the word "George" the falling circumflex slide, surprise is expressed that George rather than Henry or someone else is coming.

Inflection is the use of Pitch applied to a syllable to express its definite value as a part of a word. Inflection.

"A precedent injury. A ridiculous precedent."

"The details of the campaign in Italy. The detail for the night watch." Illustrations.

Slide is the use of Pitch in expressing the value of a word or words singly or in combination. Slide.

"Where is the dog?"

"Drive back the dog." Illustrations.

"Hath a dog money?"

It is to be noted that in practical use the Inflection and Slide are not merely variations of Pitch from the same vocal level. On the contrary, when a falling inflection is intended, the voice rises a little and then is given the downward impulse. In like manner, the voice falls a little before the upward impulse of the rising inflection. Emphasis is also generally attended by Stress.

Read the sentence, "I had a dream, which was not all a dream," in monotone, letting the voice rise or fall on the last word. The result will be mechanical and tiresome. Read again, placing the falling inflection on the first "dream" and also on the second, but slightly raising the tone before it falls, and note the difference in the two modes of reading.

Illustration.

Falling Inflection or Slide is a change of tone from a higher to a lower pitch. It is employed in positive assertion, and is the natural inflection at the end of a finished declarative statement. It is marked \.

Falling Slide.

Illustrations.

"The charge is utterly, totally, and meanly false."

"It is finished, it is done, quite done."

Rising Inflection or Slide is produced by giving the voice an upward impulse from a lower to a higher pitch. It portrays the emotions of fear, wonder, uncertainty, and expectation, and is the natural inflection of the interrogative. The indicating mark is /.

Rising Slide.

"Have you the book I gave you?"

"Out flew the many-folded lash in his hand; over the backs of the startled steeds it writhed and hissed, and hissed and writhed again and again; and though it fell not, there were both sting and menace in its quick report." Illustrations.

"But the fruit of the Spirit is love, joy, peace, long-suffering, gentleness; goodness, faith, meekness, temperance; against such there is no law."

Circumflex Inflection or Slide is a vocal trill or quaver in pitch, compounded of the falling and rising, or of the rising and falling, as the case may be. The names Rising Circumflex and Falling Circumflex have been given to the two varieties. They are indicated thus $\wedge_{V}$. Circumflex Slide.

"Hath a dog money? Is it possible
A cur can lend three thousand ducats?" Illustrations.

"If you said so, then I said so."

"Let the gall'd jade wince, our withers are unwrung!"

Suspensive Inflection or Slide is, so to speak, a semi-falling inflection. The voice begins as if to make the falling inflection, but it is suspended before it is finished. This slide resembles rhetorical pause, and is used by the reader or speaker to denote unfinished thought or to separate the parts of a long complex sentence. Suspensive Slide.

"Not one blow struck for right or for liberty, while the battle of the giants was going on about him; not one

patriotic act to stir the heart of his idolaters; not one public act of any kind whatever, about whose merit friend or foe could even quarrel, unless when he scouted our great charter as a glittering generality, or jeered at the philanthropy which tried to practise the Sermon on the Mount."

Illustration.

Semitone is a variation of Pitch, in which the voice slides up or down over about one half of a musical tone, resulting in a tenderly mournful or plaintive expression. It is used to express sympathy, contrition, or the sadness of subdued grief.

Semitone.

"Break, break, break,
At the foot of thy crags, O sea!
But the tender grace of a day that is dead
Will never come back to me."

Illustration.

Monotone might properly be designated as the absence of inflection. It is produced by reading in one key all the words of a sentence, except, perhaps, the first and last. Stress and pitch are suspended, and utterance is on "one dead level." Monotone is used to express awe and reverence.

Monotone.

"Holy! holy! holy! Lord God of Sabaoth! All the world is full of thy glory."

Illustration.

RULES FOR THE APPLICATION OF EMPHASIS

1.—In sentences in which the meaning is incomplete or suspended, Rising Inflection should be used.

"Man's study of himself, and the knowledge of his own station in the ranks of being, and his various relations to the innumerable multitudes which surround him, and with which his Maker has ordained him to be united for the reception and communication of happiness, should begin with the first glimpse of reason, and only end with life itself."

Illustration.

2.—Negative sentences require Rising Inflection.

"The proposition is peace. Not peace through the medium of war; not peace to be hunted through the labyrinth of intricate and endless negotiations; not peace to arise out of universal discord, fomented from principle in all parts of the empire; not peace to depend on the juridical determination of perplexing questions, nor the precise marking of the shadowy boundaries of a complex government."

Illustration.

3.—In clauses or sentences containing one or more complete propositions connected in thought, the first proposition should end with the Rising Inflection.

"To-morrow, and to-morrow, and to-morrow,
Creep, in this petty pace, from day to day,
To the last syllable of recorded time;
And all our yesterdays have lighted fools
The way to dusky death."

Illustration.

4.—Indefinite statements take Rising Inflection.

"Such a man as this that I have described, may reach the bench. He may be a man without passions, and therefore without vices: he may be, my Lord, a man superfluously rich, and therefore not

Illustration.

to be bribed with money; such a man, inflated by flattery and bloated in his dignity, may hereafter use that character for sanctity which has served to promote him as a sword to hew down the struggling liberties of his country; such a judge may interfere before trial, and may at the trial be a partisan."

5.—Interrogative sentences take Rising Inflection if they can be answered by a simple affirmative or negative.

Illustrations. "Did they not rally to battle as men flock to a feast?"

"Are we to be forever in search of happiness without arriving at it, either in this world or in the next? Are we formed with a passionate longing for immortality, and yet destined to perish after this short period of existence?"

6.—Sentences containing an appeal take Rising Inflection.

Illustration. "If fortune has played false with thee to-day, do thou play true for thyself to-morrow. If thy riches have taken wings and left thee, do not weep thy life away, but be up and doing and retrieve the loss by new energies and action. If an unfortunate bargain has deranged thy business, do not fold thy arms, and give up all as lost; but stir thyself and work thee more vigorously."

7.—Sentences containing pleasurable or amiable emotions require Rising Inflection.

"You must wake and call me early, call me early, mother dear;

To-morrow will be the happiest time of all the glad New Year;
Of all the glad New Year, mother, the maddest, merriest day; Illustration.
For I 'm to be Queen o' the May, mother, I 'm to be Queen o' the May."

8.—Exclamatory sentences take Rising Inflection, except when they express surprise, astonishment, doubt, or fear, when Falling Inflection is used.

"How bright are the honors that await those who die for their country!" Illustration.

9.—In a conditional clause, or one expressing an implied condition, use Rising Inflection.

"If reserves are not sent up at once, the day will be lost." Illustrations.

"If every ducat in six thousand ducats
Were in six parts and every part a ducat,
I would not draw them: I would have my bond."

10.—In a declarative sentence, having a related sequel understood, use Rising Inflection.

"No beggars implored him to bestow a trifle." Illustrations.

"We did not quite succeed."

"And this man dares to talk of conscience!"

11.—Rising Inflection should generally be used before a formal quotation. But when the quotation is long or is regarded as specially important, it may be preceded by Long Pause and Falling Inflection.

" Then Agrippa said unto Paul, ' Thou art permitted
Illustrations. to speak for thyself.' "

" On the 30th of April, 1864, President Lincoln wrote to General Grant, ' And now with a brave army and a just cause, may God defend you! ' "

" ' Let me hear another word from you,' said Scrooge, ' and you 'll keep your Christmas by losing your situation.' "

" It is said that the Duke of Wellington, when once looking at the boys engaged in their sports on the playground at Eton, made the remark, ' It was there that the battle of Waterloo was won.' "

12.—Even in delivering a short quotation, it is appropriate to alter the mode of utterance so as to clearly indicate that the matter read is quoted. This may be done by change of pitch, time, or quality.

" The eloquent Garfield, on the morning of the death of Lincoln, when he quieted the fierce tumult in Wall
Illustration. Street, New York, with that memorable sentence, ' God reigns and the Government at Washington still lives,' would have been next to powerless without the quieting influence of the hand."

13.—The condition of a threat, expressed or implied, is given with Rising Inflection.

" Traitor! I go; but I return. This—trial !
Here I devote your senate ! I 've had wrongs
Illustrations. To stir a fever in the blood of age,
Or make the infant's sinews strong as steel."

" The right honorable gentleman has called me an unimpeached traitor. I ask why not traitor unqualified by

any epithet? I will tell him: it was because he durst not. It was the act of a coward, who raises his arm to strike, but has not courage to give the blow. I will not call him villain, because it would be unparliamentary, and he is a privy counsellor. I will not call him fool, because he happens to be chancellor of the exchequer."

14.—Simple declarative sentences take Falling Inflection.

"Nothing is more fatal to self-advancement than a stupid conservatism, or servile imitation." Illustrations.

"Marley was dead to begin with."

"Burke strenuously supported the free side of the Constitution, and aroused and reinvigorated its champions"

15.—In sentences or clauses in which the sense is complete, Falling Inflection should be used.

"The lotos blooms below the barren peak: Illustration.
The lotos blows by every winding creek;
All day the wind breathes low with mellower tone,
Through every hollow cave and alley lone:
Round and round the spicy downs the yellow lotos-dust is blown.
We have had enough of action and of motion, we
Rolled to starboard, rolled to larboard, when the surge was seething free,
Where the wallowing monster spouted his foam-fountains in the sea."

16.—If a sentence is composed of several clauses incomplete in meaning and independent of each

other, Falling Inflection should be used at the end of each clause.

"The causes of good and evil are so various and uncertain, so often entangled with each other, so diversified by various relations, and so much subject to accidents which cannot be foreseen, that he who would fix his condition upon incontestable reasons of preference must live and die inquiring and deliberating."

Illustration.

17.—Interrogative sentences which cannot be answered by yes or no, take Falling Inflection.

"Who is it that causes this river to rise in the high mountains, and to empty itself in the ocean? Who is it that causes to blow the loud winds of winter, and that calms them again in the summer? Who is it that rears up the shade of these lofty forests, and blasts them with the quick lightning at His pleasure? Who but the same Great Spirit who gave to you a country on the other side of the waters, and gave ours to us?"

Illustration.

18.—Long interrogative sentences should be read in a level tone, but with appropriate slides at the beginning and end.

"Was it the deep malady of a blighted hope, a ruined enterprise, and a broken heart, aching in its last moments, at the recollection of the loved and left beyond the sea?"

Illustrations.

"What other two men, whose lives belong to the eighteenth century of Christendom, have left a deeper impression of themselves upon the age in which they lived and upon all after-time?"

19.—In emphatic affirmation, even though the sentence is negative in construction, use Falling Inflection.

"I tell the ministers I will neither give quarter nor take it." Illustration.

20.—The tone of command, censure, or authority ends with Falling Inflection.

"Depart! and come not near
The busy mart, the crowded city, more,
Nor set thy foot a human threshold o'er;
And stay thou not to hear
Voices that call thee in the way, and fly
From all who in the wilderness pass by." Illustration.

21.—Sentences containing expressions of harsh and vindictive passion, anger, or hatred take Falling Inflection.

"I grieve to see the company thou keepest—
The man whom thou hast ever at thy side,
I hate him from the bottom of my soul.
The very sight of him makes my blood thrill." Illustration.

22.—The expression of sadness, gloom, or despair, and like emotions ends with Falling Inflection.

"A grief without a pang, void, dark, and drear—
A stifled, drowsy, unimpassioned grief
Which finds no natural outlet or relief
In word, or sigh, or tear." Illustrations.

"My soul is weary of my life. I will leave my complaint upon myself. I will speak in the heaviness of my heart. Though I speak, my grief is not assuaged; and though I forbear, I am not eased."

23.—Direct responsive clauses take lower Pitch than the preceding interrogation, unless they contain new matter of special importance; then they should be read in a higher key.

Illustration.

"Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction? Shall we acquire the means of effectual resistance by lying supinely on our backs, and hugging the delusive phantom of hope, until our enemies have bound us hand and foot? Sir, we are not weak, if we make a proper use of those means which the God of nature hath placed in our power. Three millions of people, armed in the holy cause of liberty, and in such a country as that which we possess, are invincible by any force which our enemy can send against us."

24.—Antithetical parts of sentences require a change of Pitch.

Illustration.

"The proposition is peace. Not peace through the medium of war; not peace to be hunted through the labyrinth of intricate and endless negotiations; not peace to arise out of universal discord, fomented from principle in all parts of the empire; not peace to depend on the juridical determination of perplexing questions, or the precise marking of the shadowy boundaries of a complex government: it is simple peace; sought in its natural course, and in its ordinary haunts."

25.—In direct and emphatic antitheses Falling Circumflex should be used on the positive and Rising Circumflex on the negative member.

" It must be by his death, and for my part,
I know no personal cause to spurn at him, Illustration.
But for the general. He would be crown'd—
How that might change his nature, there 's the question:
It is the bright day that brings forth the adder
And that craves wary walking."

26.—The language of irony and of sarcasm takes Circumflex Inflection.

" Thy integrity got thee absolved; thy modesty drew thee out of danger; and the innocency of thy past life saved thee; for you meant no harm: oh, no: Illustration.
your thoughts are innocent; you have nothing to hide; your breast is pure, stainless, all truth."

27.—Parenthetical clauses of important character take lower Pitch and slower Time than the balance of the sentence.

" If there 's a Power above us
(And that there is, all Nature cries aloud
Through all her works), He must delight in Illustration.
virtue;
And that which He delights in must be happy."

28.—Parenthetical clauses of unimportant character require higher Pitch and quicker Time than the balance of sentence.

" Pride, in some particular disguise or other, is the most ordinary spring of human action." Illustration.

29.—In sentences which contain a suggested antithesis, the antithetical words must be given

Circumflex Inflection. An affirmative or positive clause takes Falling Inflection. A negative or contingent clause takes Rising Inflection on antithetical words.

"Justice is not a halt and miserable object; it is not the ineffective bauble of an Indian pagod; it is not the portentous phantom of despair; it is not like any fabled monster formed in the eclipse of reason and found in some unhallowed grove of superstitious darkness and political dismay. No, my Lords, Justice resembles none of these!"

Illustration.

30.—New words and contrasted ideas should be emphasized.

"No man, old or young, black or white, bond or free, native or foreign, infidel or Christian, ever came to my door to ask for food or shelter in the name of a common humanity, who did not receive it."

Illustration.

CHAPTER V

VOCAL DEFECTS

Hindrances to Speech—Major and Minor Defects—Stuttering, Stammering, Hesitation, and their Cure—Plumptre's System—Defective Articulation — Lisping, Burring, Hoarseness, Nasal Twang—Browne and Behnke's System of Cure—Weak Voice and Throat Diseases.

VOCAL Defects may be divided into two classes, the Major and the Minor. The Major Defects are stuttering, stammering, and hesitation. The Minor Defects include defective articulation, mispronunciation arising from physical causes, lisping, burring, huskiness, hoarseness, nasal twang, head tone, thick, woolly, and growling tones.

Hindrances to Speech.

In the treatment of the subject we properly consider acute and chronic sore throat, nasal catarrh, and coryza. In so doing we do not invade the domain of the medical profession, but we seek to show the necessity for prompt and skilful attention to any and all vocal irregularities. The Major Defects are comparatively uncommon, but there are very few persons whose delivery is not marred by one or more of the Minor class of vocal imperfec-

tions. Our classification of defects is not based upon their relative effect upon speech, but on the ease or difficulty with which they yield to medical treatment.

Stuttering is a defect in utterance manifested by repetitions of initial or other elementary sounds, and is attended with muscular contortions. It is confined chiefly to the vowels *o* and *u* and to the consonants.

Stuttering.

"The main feature of stuttering," says Professor Plumptre, "consists in the difficulty in conjoining and fluently enunciating syllables, words, and sentences. The interruptions are more or less frequent, the syllables or words being thrown out in jerks. The stoppage of the sound may take place at the second or third syllable of a word, but occurs more frequently at the first, and the usual consequence is, that the beginning of a syllable is several times repeated until the difficulty is conquered. The stutterer, unless he be at the same time a stammerer, has generally no difficulty in articulating the elementary sounds, in which respect he differs from the latter; it is in the combination of these sounds in the formation of words and sentences that his infirmity consists."

The causes of stuttering are enumerated by the same authority as follows:

Causes.

"Affections of the brain and spinal cord and the abdominal canal, abnormal irritability of the nervous system, vice, mental emotions, mimicry, and involuntary imitation. The proximate cause of stuttering is, in most cases, the abnormal action of the phonetic and respiratory apparatus, and not, like stammering, the result either of organic defects, or the debility of the articulating organs."

Stammering is a difficulty experienced in enunciating elementary sounds, accompanied by slow or indistinct delivery, but not attended with a repetition of sounds. It applies to both vowels and consonants. Dr. Hunt in his treatise on *Stammering* has this to say regarding its causes: **Stammering.**

"The variety of defects which constitute stammering result either from actual defective organization or from functional disturbance. Among organic defects may be enumerated: hare-lip, cleft-palate, abnormal length and thickness of the uvula, inflammation and enlargement of the tonsils, abnormal size and tumors of the tongue, tumors in the buccal cavity, want or defective position of the teeth."

When the organs are in a normal condition, and yet the person is unable to place them in a proper position to produce the desired effect, the affection is said to be functional. Debility, paralysis, spasms of the glottis, lips, etc., owing to a central or local affection of the nerves, habit, imitation, etc., may all more or less tend to produce stammering.

Messrs. Browne and Behnke, in treating of the Major Vocal Defects, thus compare stuttering and stammering: **Stuttering and Stammering Compared.**

"A stammerer can vocalize a sound in his larynx, but is unable so to regulate his tongue, palate, and lip-opening as to form that sound into a distinct vowel, and the hearer cannot consequently distinguish whether the vocal sound which is uttered, and may be indefinitely repeated, is meant for *ah*, *ai*, *ee*, *oh*, or *oo*.

"A stutterer, on the other hand, places his articulating organs in the right position for enunciation of some particular consonant, but is unable to combine with it the vocal sound giving it its vowel character, so that, as in the case of the consonant *b* for example, the hearer cannot distinguish whether the consonant which is articulated, and may be indefinitely repeated, is intended to commence a word as *bah*, *bai*, *bee*, *boh*, or *boo*."

Hesitation.

Hesitation ranges from the slightest difficulty experienced in producing an elementary sound to actual stammering. Indeed, it is not always easy to distinguish between the hesitation of the mind over the choice of words and that of the vocal organs over the articulation of sounds.

How Caused.

Dr. Abbotts, of London, writing upon the subject, says that "in a state of savage simplicity, stammering and stuttering are almost unknown." Dr. Livingstone, during his long travels in Africa, never saw a native afflicted with these defects of speech. His experience has been paralleled by that of travellers in other parts of the world. Accordingly, Dr. Abbotts and other prominent physicians in both England and America have concluded that the Major Defects of speech belong essentially to civilization, and are traceable to nervous or sanitary conditions which affect the vocal organs.

Curable.

Stuttering, stammering, and hesitation are curable. This fact has been established; but not all systems and treatments are efficacious. It is a safe estimate to set down nine-tenths of the advertised "Systems of Cure" as

either mistaken or fraudulent. Schools for stammerers and stutterers are rarely successful, yet some are eminently so. Relief is often given by individual teachers, but cure is seldom effected except in the case of hesitation.

It is alleged that persons afflicted with stuttering, stammering, and hesitation may correct these faults by individual effort in accordance with some system. I admit that hesitation may be thus cured. I admit that if the cure of stuttering or stammering is effected it must be by systematic methods, but I am exceedingly sceptical concerning alleged cures, although I admit that relief and improvement can generally be accomplished. For the benefit of the individual student, and as suggestions to the teacher of elocution, I submit a few hints which if conscientiously followed must result in radical gain.

Treatment of the Major Vocal Defects may be considered under two heads—Surgical and Educational. Stutterers and stammerers should consult the physician and then the voice trainer. If your vocal defect arises from disease or deformity, you should follow the advice of your physician, even should he advise an immediate surgical operation. If, however, the medical man does not effect a cure or should he advise vocal training, then consult the teacher whose speciality is the cure of vocal defects. **Modes of Treatment.**

The Educational cure may be managed either at a school for stammering or with an unattached teacher. In either case, I repeat the warning: Beware of cures that do not **Educational Cure.**

cure. If, however, you decide to study by yourself, remember that constant practice and the most careful adherence to the selected plan are absolutely necessary to success. The plan and the exercises are not to be used in the practice hour alone. The rules must be followed whenever the voice is used. The sufferer must be eternally vigilant. A single failure counts strongly against ultimate cure.

Among the many schemes of educational cure for stuttering, stammering, and hesitation, I have adopted that of Professor Charles J. Plumptre, of King's College, London.

Plumptre's System.

This plan, which I have adapted to the ends sought by the present treatise, has the advantage of simplicity, and can be successfully used by the sufferer himself.

Acquire a habit of calm self-possession. Free the mind as far as possible from all fear or embarrassment in the presence of others. Avoid all excesses and all undue causes of excitement.

Rule I.

Place the upper surface of the tongue against the roof of the mouth just behind the front teeth. Holding the tongue in that position, take slowly a full, deep inspiration, breathing through the nostrils. By this means the lungs will be inflated, the chest and ribs will expand, and the vocal organs will be in condition for the performance of their functions.

Rule II.

It is perfectly certain that articulation occurs only during the expiration of the air from the lungs in its outward passage through the windpipe, vocal cords, and mouth; consequently,

Purpose of Rule II.

when the lungs are inadequately inflated, and there is but a small quantity of air within them, there must necessarily be experienced a great difficulty in speaking. This can be readily enough tested. Let any person run a short distance at full speed, and then be asked at once to relate some story or read from a book. He will find that it is quite impossible for him to do so, and the chances are that he will not be able to pronounce half a dozen consecutive words. Why is this? The answer is very short and simple. In common parlance, the runner, by reason of the violent exercise he has taken, is "out of breath"; that is to say, he has not enough air in his lungs for the purpose of articulation. Now let this exhausted runner rest a minute or two, and take a long and full inspiration, in the manner I have explained, and he will then find that he can read or speak with audibility and distinctness. This is a strong proof that the confirmed stammerer or stutterer should inflate his lungs thoroughly and in the proper manner before he begins to speak or read, and that at every pause in his discourse he should systematically avail himself of the opportunity afforded of calmly, but adequately, replenishing the lungs with a fresh supply of air.

In speaking or reading keep control of the outward passage of the breath, letting it escape as slowly as possible. The expiration should be rigidly economized. Do not let any part of the air in the lungs be wasted before speaking. The air should not be allowed to come out in jerks and gasps, but its passage should be easy, steady, and

Rule III.

gradual; for it cannot be too firmly borne in mind that it is on the extension, combined with the regularity of expiration, that the intensity, the duration, and the steadiness of all vocal vibrations depend; and Señor Garcia's test of practising the voice with a lighted candle held before the mouth may be here applied. If the flame be extinguished, or even wavers much, the student may take it as a sign that he is expending too much air.

Articulate distinctly, according to the rules prescribed in the sections on Articulation, taking special care that the lips, teeth, and tongue strictly perform their several functions in pronunciation.

Rule IV.

Keep the mouth closed except when reading or speaking. Form the habit of keeping the lips firmly but easily pressed together.

Rule V.

An eminent authority has said of the habit of breathing through the mouth:

"Nothing can be worse in every way than this bad habit, either as regards the power of clear articulation and fluent speech, the proper condition of the lungs, or the vacant expression which it gives the countenance. Even in sleep, if possible, the mouth should always be kept closed, and the respiration carried on only through the air-passages of the nostrils. To all persons, whether affected with impediments of speech or not, I would say, in the most earnest manner, acquire the habit of conducting the function of respiration always by the air-passages which lead from the nostrils; never by means of the open mouth."

Acquire the habit of keeping the upper surface of

the tongue, when not speaking, closely applied to the roof of the mouth, the point of the tongue being immediately behind the upper front teeth. Rule VI.

When the tongue is so placed it is the best possible situation for beginning to speak or read, for voice is produced by a slight depression, and hence articulation is much facilitated. Keeping the tongue at the bottom of the mouth, instead of placing it in the proper position as just described, is, I can assure the stammerer, one of the worst possible habits for him or any one affected with impediments of speech. Stammerers anxious to pronounce a word beginning with a lingual immediately endeavor to do so without applying the tongue to the roof of the mouth. This being impossible, they struggle in vain to speak, and are wholly incapable of the slightest articulation. After the tongue has been rightly placed, and a good inspiration taken in the proper way, little difficulty is usually found after the first syllable has been well and carefully articulated.

Avoid all hasty and careless slurring of words. Rule VII.

Be very slow and deliberate in reading and speaking. Most stutterers and stammerers speak too rapidly. Rule VIII.

"Among the large number of patients whom I have had under my care for the removal of all kinds of impediments and difficulties in articulation, I have met with but very few who did not habitually speak with painful rapidity, and at times almost breathless haste, until they

are suddenly stopped in mid career of their impetuous speech by the impediment suddenly coming on. By a spasmodic effort, eventually they recover their power of articulation, and rattle on with their hurried words until they are once more arrested in the same way, in the very midst of a word, perhaps; and so they go on to the pain and distress of themselves and those whom they are addressing."

Let the stammerer have the word he intends to use clearly formed in his mind before he attempts to utter it. The mind should always be trained to keep in advance of the lips.

Rule IX.

No person should attempt to speak a single sentence until he knows thoroughly beforehand what it is that he intends to say; and the choice of words being mentally made, he should then pronounce them firmly and deliberately. Let the student begin to acquire confidence by first practising reading aloud, then recitation from memory, and, lastly, a short extempore discourse on some subject. Then let him repeat the same series of exercises in the same order before one or two friends, and, as his confidence in himself increases, it would be desirable to increase the number of his audience. By these means he will find his difficulties gradually disappear, and ease, fluency, and self-possession will take the place of hesitation, timidity, and self-distrust.

Most of the systems prescribed for the cure of vocal defects include some kind of gymnastics to give strength to the body and tone to the nervous system. The educational

Gymnastics.

cure for stuttering and stammering proceeds upon the basis that these defects of speech are bad habits and not due to functional disorders of the vocal organs. Many cases of stuttering and stammering are, however, traceable to physical causes, and therefore the educational cure is often useless. If the system herein given does not correct the vocal defect, the inference may be drawn that the cause of the difficulty of utterance lies deeper than faulty habits of breathing or articulation, and requires the services of a physician.

The Minor imperfections of speech are much more common than those above considered. They are due in part to diseases of the vocal organs, and in part to slovenly methods of utterance. In most cases they may be corrected by practice, and it is the special province of elocutionary training to replace them by clear and natural articulation. **Minor Defects.**

A considerable number of minor vocal defects are embraced under the head of Defective Articulation. Such are the wrong uses of the aspirate H, by which it is sometimes eliminated from such words as horse, house, and hard, and added to words beginning with a vowel. For example, "Shall I turn the 'orses into the horchard?" Another common defect is slurring over one or more syllables of a word, as g'ography for geography, 'rithmetic for arithmetic, 'lectric for electric, fah for far, and floo for floor. Some persons introduce the letter *r* between syllables or at the end of a word. For example, drawring for drawing and **Defective Articulation.**

idear for idea. Another form of defective articulation is produced by uniting the final syllable of one word to the initial syllable of the next, as fir-strate for first-rate, I wo-ker-pearly for I woke up early. Another fault is sounding *n* between words or syllables, with some such effect as neurope for Europe, nambition for ambition. Even educated persons sometimes say juty for duty, juke for duke, and emejiately for immediately. Such faults of articulation are the result of carelessness, and should be corrected as soon as attention is called to them.

Mispronunciation arising from physical causes is a defect of utterance similar to those we are now considering. It generally arises from some ailment of the throat or nasal passages which renders articulation imperfect. For example, when one is suffering from cold in the head, some of the consonants like *p*, *b*, or *d* are mispronounced. Chronic catarrh occasionally leads to the same defect. A cleft palate or an elongated uvula sometimes interferes with clear articulation. Affections of the tonsils also give to speech a faulty utterance, which leaves the impression that one is trying to talk with his mouth partly filled with food. These affections are for medical consideration and cannot be cured by rules of elocution.

Mispronunciation.

The habitual substitution of the sound *th* for *s* is termed lisping. It is due to the wrong position of the tongue when the lisper attempts to articulate *s*. Quite generally also there is a sympathetic movement of the lips resulting in an exaggeration of the *th* or lisping sound.

Lisping.

The *s* sound is made by almost closing the mouth and forcing the air out between the teeth over the tongue slightly arched at the back, producing a hissing sound. The *th* sound is made nearly in the same way, except that the tip of the tongue is pressed lightly against the upper teeth. How Corrected.

Place the tongue in the right position and repeat S S S until the sound is clear and resonant. Then practise the following words: gas, mass, dose, mace, griefs, laughs, months, verse, dupes, packs, lax, styx, hosts, fists, ghosts, soil, cell, scene, schism, psalm—apsis, thesis, question, tacit, pincers, flaccid, sceptre, schedule, psalmist, psyche—preside, desists, design, obese, verbose, rescind, dissuade—heresy, poesy, chersonese, vaccinate, scymitar, scintillate.

"When—Ajax—strives—some—rock's—vast—weight—to—throw."

"The—sophist's—shrewd—suggestion."

"Guessing—the—design—was—perceived—he—desisted."

"See—the—snakes—as—they—rear!
How—they hiss in—the—air!"

Burring is a vicious pronunciation of the letter *r*, produced by trilling the tongue against the soft palate. The burr also assumes a guttural quality peculiarly rasping and unpleasant to the ear. As a habit of pronunciation it is easily broken up by avoiding the trill and articulating *r* clearly without exaggerating the sound. Burring.

Practise the following words containing the rough *r* sound without the trill:

Ray, raw, rheum, wrap, wry, fry, pray, bray, crape, grape, tray, dray, shrill, shriek, shroud, throw, throng—raiment, rampart, rhubarb, wrestle, phrenzy, christian, rural—around, erect, enrich, rebel, refine —regulator, rumination, memorandum, sudorific, repercussion, repetition.

"Rend with-tremendous-sound your-ears-asunder
With-gun-drum-trumpet blunderbuss-and-thunder."

"Approach-thou like-the rugged-Russian-bear,
The armed rhinoceros."

Huskiness and hoarseness are different degrees of the same hindrance to clear vocalization. They arise from temporary or permanent affections of the pharynx, and are due to conditions which call for medical treatment. Throat congestion and catarrh are the provocative causes.

Huskiness and Hoarseness.

The vocal defect known as Nasal Twang arises from a faulty method of managing the soft palate. It is sometimes designated as talking through the nose. By raising the soft palate, the nasal passages are shut off and sound goes out from the throat through the mouth. On the other hand, if the soft palate is lowered, it shuts off the mouth and sound passes upward through the nose. The latter is what causes Nasal Twang.

Nasal Twang.

As a means of overcoming Nasal Twang I have adopted rules laid down by Brown and Behnke.

Stand in front of your mirror, open the mouth widely, and see that the back of your throat is well illuminated.

Rule I.

Breathe through the mouth; the soft palate will be moderately raised, with the uvula in its normal shape and position. In expiration through the mouth the uvula will be thrown a little forward. Rule II.

Open the mouth again and inhale through the nostrils. This will cause the soft palate to fall, and the tongue to rise, which has the effect of shutting the mouth at the back just as you shut it in front by closing the lips. Exhale in the same way, and the mouth will remain shut at the back. Repeat several times. Rule III.

Learn to control your tongue by following exercises on page 30. Inhale through the nostrils, with the mouth wide open. Prevent the tongue from rising, keep it still and flat. This will compel the soft palate to come down smartly, which is just what is wanted. Now exhale through the mouth, when the soft palate will rise again. Rule IV.

By thus inhaling through the nostrils with the mouth open, and the tongue still and flat, the soft palate is pulled vigorously down, and by exhaling through the mouth the soft palate is raised again. If, therefore, these two actions are repeated for a little while, the soft palate is moved up and down, which must necessarily have the effect of strengthening the muscles of which it largely consists.

Another noticeable fault is the utterance of clergymen who attempt to impress their hearers by an affectedly solemn tone of voice. Similar to Nasal Twang.

A vocal defect of a peculiar kind is occasionally met with among public speakers. It is a delivery characterized by High Pitch and Fast Time. The speaker shrieks his words in a shrill voice, rising to Falsetto Tone, which produces the peculiar form of utterance known as the eunichoid voice—the unchanged treble of childhood. It is a tiresome mode of speaking both for the orator and his audience. It may be corrected by simply pitching the voice in a lower key and practising until the speaker has control of his voice in Low Pitch.

Head Tone.

Other defects of vocalization have received the names of Thick, Woolly, and Growling Tones. They are all the result of more or less imperfect effort to articulate in the throat, hence "throaty tone" met with in several treatises on the subject. Browne and Behnke ascribe these tones to lack of flexibility in the tongue and they suggest the practice of the following exercises to overcome the defect:

Other Tones.

Open the mouth widely. Put out the tongue straight and as far as possible. Draw it back smartly and try to let it lie flat and low, but touching the lower teeth all round. Repeat several times. In this, as well as in the remaining tongue exercises, great care must be taken to keep the lips and the lower jaw perfectly still.

Rule I.

Put the tip of the tongue against the lower front teeth, and then push it out as far as possible; this will, of course, completely roll it up. Then draw it back smartly as in Exercise No. 1. Repeat several times.

Rule II.

Keep the root of the tongue as flat as you can, raise the tip and push it perpendicularly and quite slowly towards the roof of the mouth. Then lower it again as gradually until it has once more assumed its original position. Repeat several times. Rule III.

Raise the tip of the tongue as in Exercise No. 3, and move it gradually from one side to the other so that the highest point of it describes a semicircle. Repeat several times. Rule IV.

Another device in curing throaty tone consists in singing sustained notes to oo-oh-ah. The oo is our most "forward" vowel, then follows oh and ah. If, therefore, we sing oo, and then let it gradually dwindle into oh, without allowing it to slip back, we fix the oh in the same place in which we first had the oo. Now let us imperceptibly change the oh into ah, still taking care not to allow the latter vowel to slip back, and we shall fix the ah where we just had the oh; that is to say, right in front of the mouth. This is a very useful exercise for the purpose of improving the quality of tone and of increasing the "reach" of the voice. But it is insufficient where throatiness arises from stiffening of the root of the tongue and the surrounding parts, and in such cases the oo-oh-ah exercises should be preceded by rapidly singing the syllable koo. Musical accuracy is unnecessary. Rule V.

Weak voice is noticeable in many public speakers. They are unable to make themselves heard in a large room, and the effort to do so results in great weariness to the vocal organs. Weak Voice.

Weak voice may be the effect of bodily disease; for instance, consumptives and invalids generally cannot speak with force and power. But in the majority of instances it is not lack of voice which afflicts the speaker, but wrong methods of its use. In healthy persons there should be little difference in vocal power. Each has the same organs of voice, and their proper use ought to yield almost equal results. Therefore, if a speaker has a weak voice, the inference is that it needs exercise and development. The means of strengthening the voice, as those of increasing the power of the muscles, are purely mechanical. Part I. of this treatise is chiefly devoted to the subject of voice culture, and the instructions laid down in the various chapters on vocal training are applicable in strengthening a weak voice.

In a general way it may be said that the cure of weak voice depends, first, on the proper inflation of the lungs and the management of the breath; secondly, on opening the mouth to let out the sound and on correct articulation; and thirdly, on the cultivation of full and sonorous tones.

The means of cure are simple and easily applied, and the possibility of making the voice strong and effective in speech is always at hand. A man of sedentary habits may be content to remain weak and with his muscles undeveloped, but no one will maintain that it is necessary for him to do so.

Cure for Weak Voice.

Although few mechanical appliances for strengthening the voice and deepening the tone quality are of any value, yet after a series of exhaustive tests I have concluded that the prin-

ciple of the Barnard Tube System is of great utility, and I recommend it in most cases of minor vocal defects, and particularly for weak voices.

The throat diseases which I will briefly mention here are Acute and Chronic Sore Throat, Catarrh, and Coryza. **Throat Diseases.**

In its most common form Acute Sore Throat is a congestion or inflammation of the mucous membrane of the palate and uvula. The tonsils may be affected, as may the pharynx. **Acute Sore Throat.** This form of sore throat is generally the result of catching cold. It may arise, however, from inhaling an atmosphere laden with tobacco smoke, or from any other cause which produces irritation of the throat lining. Speech is rendered difficult by an attack of this malady, and should be suspended as much as circumstances will allow, until the throat is cured.

The common cold being the great provoking cause of acute sore throat, a few observations with reference to this universal affliction are appropriate. **Catching Cold.** Catching cold is generally the result of sudden and extreme changes of temperature. Passing from a warm room into a cold one or from the house out of doors, without sufficient additional clothing, may be the means of taking cold. Coming in from the cold air and going immediately to the stove or register is also a provoking cause of colds. Riding in cold street cars, sitting in damp or cold rooms, allowing the feet to get damp, and over-eating, are other things which often result in a heavy cold. There is prob-

ably no sure panacea for the common cold. The safest way is avoidance, which can be achieved by care of the body under all circumstances. Much depends upon good health and the power to resist the changes of temperature. To this end an eminent authority on the subject declares that breathing through the nose, the morning bath, and plenty of exercise will ensure the voice-user against catching cold.

Chronic Sore Throat.

Chronic Sore Throat is any form of throat disease which tends to permanency. Its chief forms are Catarrh, Granular Inflammation of the Pharynx, and Coryza.

Catarrh.

Catarrh has several forms, but the most common is an affection of the lining of the pharynx and palate. The membranes are red and marked by congested blood-vessels. A bad taste in the mouth and constant secretions of phlegm in the diseased parts are general symptoms of this disease. It may be caused by a neglected cold or may arise from disordered digestion. An attack of catarrh generally lasts several weeks or months and disappears with the provoking cause. Local applications are of little service. The sufferer should resort to medical advice in order to reach the real origin of the trouble and to apply the right remedy for cure.

Clergyman's Sore Throat.

Granular Inflammation of the Pharynx, otherwise known as "clergyman's sore throat," is an ailment which attacks the glands or follicles of the mucous membrane. It is attended by irritation, a pricking sensation and fatigue in

speaking. When persistent it sometimes results in actual loss of the voice. This disease is caused by speaking with the vocal organs in a constrained position, or by faulty breathing. Clergymen who read their sermons are more subject to it than those who speak extemporaneously. It can be prevented by holding the head erect in speaking and breathing correctly, but when the disease has been contracted a physician should be consulted.

Coryza is the name applied to Chronic Nasal Catarrh. It usually results from a neglected cold in the head or from a series of those disagreeable attacks. The mucous membranes of the nasal passages become congested, and the secretions being retained, result in offensive discharges, and sometimes in impairment of the general health. Coryza affects speech by disturbing articulation, and has a tendency to develop or exaggerate nasal twang. With the other diseases of a chronic character which we are describing, its cure should be intrusted to the medical practitioner.

Coryza.

CHAPTER VI

GESTURE

Action in Public Speaking — Value of Gesture — Classification — Designative, Descriptive, Significant, Assertive, Figurative — Attitude of the Body, the Head, Limbs, and Facial Expression.

THE public speaker finds one of his greatest aids to expression in the appropriate position and movements of the body. A well-trained voice and a well-trained body in words, tones, inflections, and gesture should work in harmony to the general result—eloquence. The sign language is intelligible to all races, and it constitutes one of the simplest forms of expression. It is, therefore, most fitting that it should be made use of by the orator to emphasize or to reinforce his spoken words. The tendency to do this is instinctive and universal.

Action in Public Speaking.

Gesture is that part of effective delivery which expresses thought through the action of the body. Speech conveys ideas, impressions, and emotions audibly, being addressed to the ear, while gesture silently sets forth the workings of the mind to the eye. Therefore, the one is the complement of the other, and should be used in connection and harmony with it.

Definition.

" ' Forward, the Light Brigade!
Charge for the guns,' he said! " Illustration.

It is evident that by giving the appropriate gesture, as an accompaniment to the forcible expulsion of the voice, in uttering the above words of command, a vividness and power is added to the description which correct vocal technique alone could not give.

In like manner, if a clergyman delivers to his congregation an earnest warning or solemn appeal, it will lack one of the essential elements of effectiveness if his eyes are riveted to his manuscript, if his arms hang lifeless by his side, and if his hands are moved only to thumb the pages of his sermon. Gesture, perhaps, more than any other one thing, gives animation and force to public speaking.

That gesture is a valuable adjunct to eloquence may be inferred from the fact that it is based upon the natural attitudes and movements of the body. Nervous conditions exhibit themselves in physical activities, and when the public speaker is deeply moved by conviction or affected by inward emotion, he instinctively employs gesture to aid him in impressing upon others what he feels. By means of it he appeals to the sight as well as to the hearing of his auditors, and thus reaps a double advantage from his efforts. It was Quintilian who attributed to the hand alone the power to invite or repel, to accept or reject, to give or withhold, to welcome or deprecate. Value of Gesture.

" O Rome! Rome! thou hast been a tender nurse to

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me. Ay! thou hast given to that poor, gentle, timid shepherd-lad, who never knew a harsher tone than a flute-note, muscles of iron and a heart of flint; taught him to drive the sword through plaited mail and links of rugged brass, and warm it in the marrow of his foe:—to gaze into the glaring eyeballs of the fierce Numidian lion even as a boy upon a laughing girl!"

Illustration.

Is it possible to think of Spartacus giving utterance to these words in the presence of his fellow-gladiators, without a series of quick and vigorous gestures, born of the intense and tumultous emotions within?

With reference to general application in the expression of sentiment, Gesture is classified as Conversational, Oratorical, and Dramatic.

Gestures Classified.

Conversational Gesture is appropriate to the language of conversation, ordinary description, narration, and unemotional discourse. The attitude should be natural, and the gestures should radiate from the elbow, and be confined chiefly to the forearm and hand.

Conversational.

"With regard to the art of all men, that of language, the chief vices of education have arisen from the one great fallacy of supposing that noble language is a communicable trick of grammar and accent, instead of the careful expression of right thought. All the virtues of language are, in their roots, moral; it becomes accurate if the speaker desires to be true; clear, if he speaks with sympathy and a desire to be intelligible; powerful, if he has earnestness; pleasant, if he has sense of rhythm and order."

Illustration.

Oratorical Gesture is used in the expression of serious conviction, earnest appeal, and animated discourse. The attitude should be active, arms moving freely from the shoulder, the eyes flashing, and the face lighted with the glow of confidence and power. Oratorical.

"Mr. President, my object is peace. I will not pretend, like my honorable colleague, to describe to you the waste, the ravages, and the horrors of war. I have not the same harmonious periods, nor the same musical tones; neither shall I boast of Christian charity, nor attempt to display that ingenuous glow of benevolence so decorous to the cheek of youth, which gave a vivid tint to every sentence he uttered, and was, if possible, as impressive as his eloquence. But though we possess not the same pomp of words, our hearts are not insensible to the woes of humanity. We can feel for the misery of plundered towns, the conflagration of defenceless villages, and the devastation of cultured fields. Turning from these features of general distress, we can enter the abodes of private affliction, and behold the widow weeping as she traces, in the pledges of connubial affection, the resemblance of him whom she has lost forever. We see the aged matron bending over the ashes of her son. He was her darling, for he was generous and brave, and, therefore, his spirit led him to the field in defence of his country. Hard, hard indeed, must be that heart which can be insensible to scenes like these, and bold the man who dare present to the Almighty Father a conscience crimsoned with the blood of His children." Illustration.

Dramatic Gesture is the exponent of strong emo-

tion, feeling, or passion. The attitude, the face, arms, and hands are all so many vehicles for the expression of intense excitement within.

Dramatic.

"But, Mr. Speaker, we have a right to tax America. Oh, inestimable right! Oh, wonderful, transcendent right! the assertion of which has cost this country thirteen provinces, six islands, one hundred thousand lives, and seventy millions of money! Oh, invaluable right! for the sake of which we have sacrificed our rank among nations, our importance abroad, and our happiness at home! Oh, right, more dear to us than our existence, which has already cost us so much, and which seems likely to cost us our all! Infatuated men! miserable and undone country! not to know that the claim of right, without the power of enforcing it, is nugatory and idle. We have a right to tax America, the noble Lord tells us, therefore we ought to tax America. This is the profound logic which comprises the whole chain of his reasoning."

Illustration.

In its specific application to the interpretation of language by the public speaker or reader, Gesture permits five varieties—Designative, Descriptive, Significant, Assertive, and Figurative.

Varieties of Gesture.

Designative gestures are those which point out objects or persons, and which designate, modify, or explain something. They are made by a movement of the head, by the index finger, or with the open supine hand.

Designative.

"I tell thee, *thou 'rt* defied."

"Methinks I saw *thee* straying on the beach."

"The *brave* abroad fight for the *wise* at home." Illustrations.

"His capacious mind ranged *over the whole subject.*"

"I refer the matter to the honorable gentleman and his friends *on the other side of the House.*"

Descriptive Gestures are used to describe objects, to designate actions, or to indicate height, length, space, time, or position. They employ a variety of movements, but more particularly the horizontal, oblique, or lateral hand. Descriptive.

"Gold *sowed the world* with every ill."

"O'er the *river*, the *village*, the *field*, and the *wood*." Illustrations.

"The *sun*, the *moon*, the *stars*, His majesty proclaim."

"The cloud of adversity *threw its gloom* over all his prospects."

In the use of Descriptive Gesture avoid too close conformity between the Gesture and the act or thing described.

"Maud Muller on a summer's day
Raked the meadows rich with hay." Illustrations.

Do not imitate the raking.

"And when his courtiers came, they found him thus
Kneeling upon the floor, absorbed in silent prayer."

Do not kneel or place hands in attitude of prayer.

" Then Rustum raised his head; his dreadful eyes
Glared, and he shook on high his menacing spear,
And shouted: ' Rustum! '—Sohrab heard that shout,
And shrank amazed: back he recoil'd one step,
And scann'd with blinking eyes the advancing form;
And then he stood bewilder'd, and he dropp'd
His covering shield, and the spear pierced his side.
He reel'd, and, staggering back, sank to the ground."

In this example it would be folly to imitate each act by a Descriptive Gesture. The reader might recoil slightly and assume a look of surprise, but he should not blink, drop his shield, reel, stagger, or sink upon the ground. It would be ridiculous to attempt it.

" On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow."

In rendering these lines the reader would not be expected to indicate by gesture the exact lowness of the sun or the fact that the snow was spread at his feet.

Significant Gestures indicate the source from which a sentiment or emotion proceeds. They exhibit the cringing attitude of fear, the bowing of the head in worship, the clasping of the hands in joy, the nod of salutation, the stamp of the foot to indicate rage or impress authority, the pressing of the finger to the lips to prescribe silence, and of the hand to the head in token of bodily pain or mental distress.

Significant.

" The Lord is in His holy Temple."

Illustrations.

" Back, slaves, I will return."

"O Joshua! a mouse, shoo—shoo—, a great, horrid mouse, and she—ew, it ran right out of the cupboard—shoo—go away—O Joshua!—shoo—kill it, oh, my—shoo!"

"I refuse the offer."

"Away with an idea so absurd!"

Assertive Gestures are used, especially in public speaking and animated conversation, to emphasize or impress a statement. **Assertive.**

"The war is *inevitable*. Let it *come*." **Illustrations.**

"To such *usurpation* I will never submit."

"Hath God not made *foolish* the wisdom of this world?"

"Fourscore and seven years ago, our fathers brought forth upon this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation—or any nation so conceived and so dedicated—can long endure."

Figurative Gestures grow out of the analogy, expressed or implied, between physical action and mental or moral conditions. By way of illustration, use the same gesture in each pair of the following sentences: **Figurative.**

"We *buried* him darkly at dead of night."

"All personal consideration he *buried* before the altar of his country." **Illustrations.**

"Here is the present I *brought* from London."

"This is the matter for *consideration.*"
"There is your man! *Arrest* him!"
"*Arrest* that fleeting thought."

Attitude is the term applied to the general bearing of the speaker before his audience, and, in particular, it refers to the manner in which he stands or poses. Graceful carriage and appropriate movements of the body are an important aid to public speaking, and the study of correct attitude is essential to the final acquisition of the art of eloquence.

Attitude.

John C. Calhoun uttering his fiery appeals in the United States Senate in behalf of the rights of South Carolina, could not have stood with knees bent forward, with shoulders stooping and with protruding chin. Such an attitude would have been one of weakness, and never could have made the profound impression upon his auditors, which to this day is a tradition in that "Temple of American Orators."

The ideal figure of the orator is that of grace and youthful vigor. He stands with head erect; the chest expanded; the eye sweeping the field of vision; the countenance animated; the weight of the body resting upon one foot, with the other slightly in front, and the whole frame instinct with life and power. It is the perfect physical organism ready for vocal work.

In the analysis of the various positions and movements that the speaker may assume, two kinds of Attitude are usually recognized —the Passive and the Active.

Classification.

Passive Attitude may be called also the natural attitude of the speaker. It denotes the absence of strong emotions, and is applicable to conversation and to all forms of plain discourse. It is to be assumed in connection with Medium Pitch, Effusive Quality, and Initial Force. Passive.

"Mother was away, and, in consequence, Bess, Bob, Archie, and Tom had gotten into all sorts of mischief, the most serious accident being Archie's broken arm, the result of an attempt to ride the trick mule at the circus the day before. But in the minds of the children, the fact that Bob had dropped the best silver tea-pot down the well quite overshadowed all other misfortunes and the question was, how to recover it." Illustration.

Active Attitude is assumed when strong emotion or intensity of thought is to be represented. It is the natural bodily condition for earnest appeal, violent invective, or impassioned address. With it are used High Pitch, Explosive Force and Aspirate, Pectoral, or Orotund Quality. Active.

"O comrades! warriors! Thracians! if we must fight, let us fight for ourselves; if we must slaughter, let us slaughter our oppressors; if we must die, let us die under the open sky, by the bright waters, in noble, honorable battle." Illustrations.

"What! to attribute the sacred sanctions of God and Nature, to the massacres of the Indian scalping-knife! to the cannibal savage, torturing, murdering, devouring, drinking the blood of his mangled victims! Such notions shock every precept of morality, every feeling of

humanity, every sentiment of honor. These abominable principles, and this more abominable avowal of them, demand the most decisive indignation."

The fact is to be kept in mind that the trunk or torso is the centre from which all gesture proceeds. To it the arms and lower extremities are attached, while it supports the head and contains within itself a part of the vocal organs. Its relation to gesture, therefore, is fundamental, and the proper management of the trunk is important in public speaking. The following observations and rules for cultivating correct attitude will be found suggestive and helpful.

Radius of Motion.

The trunk should always be well supported, one foot being placed so that the centre of gravity shall be on the line passing through the centre of support. Otherwise the balance may be lost and the speaker rest or fall.

Centre of Gravity.

Expansion of the chest indicates excitement, courage, pride, or power of the will, while its contraction exhibits timidity, exhaustion, pain, or collapse of the will.

Chest Expansion.

Deliver the following with head erect and chest expanded.

"In your war of 1812, when your arms on shore were covered by disaster,—when Winchester had been defeated, when the army of the Northwest had surrendered and when the gloom of despondence hung like a cloud over the land,—who first relit the fires of national glory, and made the welkin ring with the shouts of victory? It was the American Sailor."

Illustrations.

Deliver this excerpt from "The Leper" with chest contracted, head bowed, in Low Pitch and Guttural Quality.

"And aside they stood,
Matron, and child, and pitiless manhood,—all
Who met him on his way,—and let him pass.
And onward through the open gate he came,
A leper with the ashes on his brow,
Sackcloth about his loins, and on his lip
A covering, stepping painfully and slow,
And with a difficult utterance, like one
Whose heart is with an iron nerve put down,
Crying, 'Unclean!—Unclean!'"

Attitudes of the Trunk.

The trunk leaning toward an object indicates deference, affection, or moral attraction. Leaning from it is expressive of fear, timidity, aversion, or moral repulsion. In physical prostration or moral weakness the body is bowed down, gestures being made in a low plane. In spiritual exaltation or the enthusiasm of pleasing emotions the chest is broadened, the body lifted, and gesture is in a high plane.

Apply these observations in rendering the examples in the preceding section.

Coming on the Stage.

When Mr. Kean, the actor, first came upon the London stage, and paused a moment to greet his audience, such was the perfection of his bodily movements and attitude, that, it is said, those present immediately recognized in him a genius.

The first requisite is a graceful carriage such as

may be acquired by military drill or the practice of athletic games. This is the foundation of the true platform walk, as it is of the science of Gesture.

Graceful Carriage.

Enter upon the platform from the rear. By that means the speaker can keep his eye upon the audience. Do not enter at the side, unless absolutely required to do so. The effort to look at the audience and to reach a position in the centre cannot be graceful. Having stepped upon the platform, walk easily, but somewhat rapidly to the front of the stage, and assume the First Position, described on page 125. The bearing of the speaker should be dignified, confident, and indicative of strength. The expression of the face, the eye, the attitude, the whole manner of the man should be that of power.

Where to Enter.

The bow is intended for greeting or in acknowledgment of applause. As the speaker comes to the front of the stage, he should greet his audience with a slight inclination of the head. If applause is somewhat prolonged, he may repeat the bow, but should be chary of doing so. If the address is actually interrupted by applause, the speaker may resort to the bow in acknowledgment thereof. But in any case, even at the close of a discourse enthusiastically received, the platform bow should never be a low one.

Bowing.

When the address is ended the speaker's mission is accomplished. He should retire as he came, with the same graceful but vigorous tread, leaving the impression of strong reserve

Leaving the Platform.

power untouched and unimpaired. The habit some speakers have of retiring as though exhausted by elocutionary effort is reprehensible. Oratorical self-poise continues to the close of the chapter, and the alertness of conscious strength should be maintained to the end, even if the speaker has drawn upon the last pound of vitality.

The same general observations are applicable, when a person rises to speak on the platform or in a deliberative assembly. If possible, he should face his auditors. Under whatever circumstances he may be placed, he should exhibit the true dignity and power of the public speaker. Let him observe the regulations laid down for more formal oratorical efforts, and be guided by the underlying principles of good elocution. **Rising to Speak.**

Under the general term Movement have been grouped in this classification the Gestures of the Head and Arms, and the movements of the Lower Limbs. **Movement.**

The Gestures of the Head are four—very simple and very effective. They are the nod of affirmation, the shake of negation, the toss of contempt, and the turning away in disgust and horror. **The Head.**

"Yes! my lord."

"I concede all that my opponent claims.'

"No! Thou shalt remain with me." **Illustrations.**

"Not that I loved Cæsar less, but that I loved Rome more."

"Let that plebeian talk."

"But here I stand and scoff you! here I fling
Hatred and full defiance in your face."

Basing my classification on the principles laid down in Dr. Austin's "Chironomia" and the works of later authorities in France and England, I recognize nine attitudes for the head in public speaking.

Attitudes of the Head.

The erect head is the natural position in repose, signifying respectful attention, earnestness of purpose, and the serenity of conscious power.

Erect.

"The whole continental struggle exhibited no sublimer spectacle than the last great effort of Napoleon to save his sinking empire. Europe had been put upon the plains of Waterloo to be battled for. The greatest military energy and skill the world possessed had been tasked to the utmost during the day. Thrones were tottering on the ensanguined field, and the shadows of fugitive kings flitted through the smoke of battle. Bonaparte's star trembled in the zenith, now blazing out in its ancient splendor, now suddenly paling before his anxious eye."

Illustration.

The bowed head indicates absorption of mind or purpose to the exclusion of passing events. It is the attitude of contemplation or of cunning stratagem or suspicion.

Bowed.

The elevated head is indicative of pride, exultation, and joy. It expresses the sentiments of a domineering and self-conscious spirit.

Elevated.

" But Douglas round him drew his cloak,
Folded his arms, and thus he spoke:
' My manors, halls, and bowers shall still
Be open, at my sovereign's will,
To each one whom he lists, howe'er
Unmeet to be the owner's peer;
My castles are my king's alone,
From turret to foundation stone,—
The hand of Douglas is his own,
And never shall in friendly grasp
The hand of such as Marmion clasp.' "

Turned Horizontally.

When turned toward an object, the head signifies interest or affection; turned away, it indicates aversion or repulsion.

Illustrations.

" I acknowledge my sincere regard for the honorable gentleman who preceded me."

" Shall I bend low, and in a bondman's key,
With 'bated breath and whispering humbleness, say this:
' Fair sir, you spit on me on Wednesday last;
You spurned me such a day; another time
You called me—dog; and for these courtesies
I 'll lend you thus much monies ? ' "

Inclined.

The head inclined toward a person or object, shows respectful attention; bent in the opposite direction, critical distrust.

Illustrations.

" Give me good proofs of what you have alleged."

" I acknowledge his greatness as a military leader, but I doubt the sincerity of his intentions."

" How like a fawning publican he looks,"

Pushed Forward. The head pushed forward is expressive of hope, expectation, eagerness, and a desire to engage in some enterprise.

Illustrations. "Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I give my hand and my heart to this vote! It is true, indeed, that, in the beginning, we aimed not at independence. But there is a Divinity which shapes our ends. The injustice of England has driven us to arms; and, blinded to her own interest for our good, she has obstinately persisted, till independence is now within our grasp. We have but to reach forth to it, and it is ours. Why, then, should we defer the declaration?"

Drawn Back. The head drawn backward, with the chin pressed inward against the neck, indicates suspicion, fear, hatred, vengeance, and violent anger. This position of the head gives rise to the harsh guttural tones of rage and indignation.

"On the Earl's cheek the flush of rage
O'ercame the ashen hue of age:
Fierce he broke forth,—'And dar'st thou then
To beard the lion in his den,
The Douglas in his hall?
And hop'st thou hence unscathed to go?
No, by St. Bride of Bothwell, no!
Up, drawbridge, grooms!—What, warder, ho!
Let the portcullis fall.'"

Hanging Downward. The head hanging downward exhibits physical weakness, consciousness of guilt, shame, or remorse.

" King Robert crossed both hands upon his breast
And meekly answered him: ' Thou knowest best;
My sins as scarlet are; let me go hence,
And in some cloistered school of penitence,
Across those stones that pave the way to heaven,
Walk barefoot, till my guilty soul be shriven.' "

Illustration.

The head is thrown backward in the death agony, in extreme exaltation, or in supreme suffering of mind or body.

Thrown Backward.

" Oh, I die, Horatio;
The potent poison quite o'er-crows my spirit."

Illustrations.

" By my troth, Nerissa, my little body is a-weary of this great world."

CHAPTER VII

GESTURE (*Concluded*)

The Arms in Gesture—The Hand, Supine, Prone, Vertical, Clenched—Position, How Taken and Changed—Lines of Gestures—The Ictus—End of the Gesture—Illustrations, Table, and Selections for Practice.

THE arms perform an important function in Gesture. They are freest to move of all the members of the body, and with the hands are the chief expositors of the public speaker's sign language. It is to the arms and hands, then, that chief attention should be directed in the cultivation of effective Gesture.

The Arms.

When standing, the arms hang naturally by the side, and this may be termed the normal attitude. They are folded across the breast in contemplation, held behind the back in abstraction, raised above the head in threatening, and are placed akimbo in impersonation or contemptuous defiance.

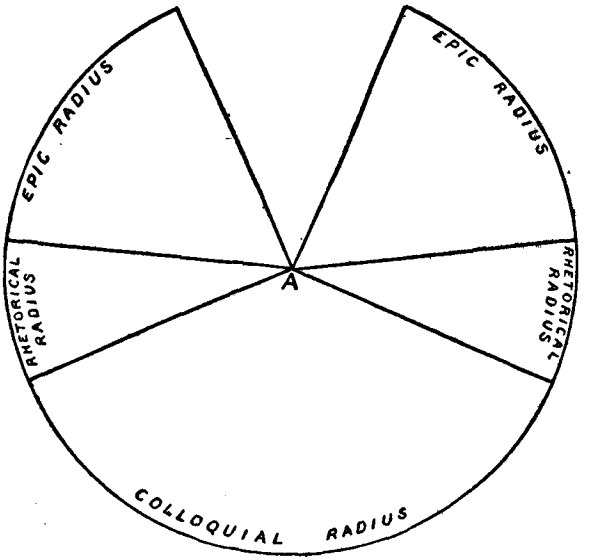
Attitudes of the Arms.

For convenience in classification the movements of the arms in forming gestures will be considered under three divisions—the Shoulder, the Forearm, and the Hand.

Classification.

The shoulder in Gesture is little more than a radius of motion. It serves as the starting point of most movements of the arm and hand, and from its position affects Gesture. The shoulders drawn backward indicate might or defiance; they are raised in adoration and the contemplation of the sublime; they may be shrugged

The Shoulders.



EXPLANATION: **A** *represents a point one third of the distance from Larynx to waist line. Each segment represents, approximately, the limits of one of the three classes of gesture. No diagram can absolutely define the exact bounds of a particular class of gesture.*

in contempt, and drawn forward in cringing fear and horror. But even in these attitudes they serve principally to give direction to appropriate gestures of the arms and hands.

Like the shoulder, the elbow may become a radius of motion, and then the Forearm comes into prominence in Gesture. Dr. Gilbert Austin in his exhaustive analysis gave to the Forearm three radii—called respectively the Colloquial, Rhetorical, and Epic.

The Forearm.

The Colloquial Radius forms a quadrant with the centre at about the middle of the sternum, and the upper line of the angle passing through the middle of the humerus. In this radius the forearm moves in a low plane, forming gestures in the main on a level with the waist.

Colloquial.

Illustrations.

"It must be so; Plato, thou reasonest well."

"These are the fundamental principles of knowledge."

The Rhetorical Radius forms a circle in the plane of the shoulder, the forearm turning upon a pivot at the elbow, and the hand passing through three hundred and sixty degrees on a level with the base of the throat.

Rhetorical.

"Think for thyself one good idea."

Illustrations.

"To thine own self be true."

"Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with thy might."

"And why beholdest thou the mote that is in thy brother's eye, but considerest not the beam that is in thine own eye?"

The Epic Radius forms a quadrant with the centre at the base of the throat, and the perpendicular line of the angle passing upward through the head. In this radius the forearm moves

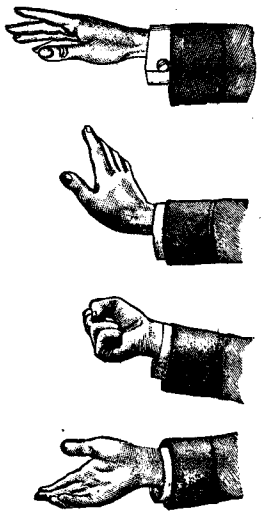
Epic.

in the high plane, forming gestures above the head and shoulder.

"Aspire to the highest and noblest attainments." **Illustrations.**

"Day gilds the mountain tops."

The chief positions of the hand in Gesture are four—the Supine, Prone, Vertical, and Clenched. **The Hand.**



(Reproduced by permission of Messrs. Ginn & Company from Fulton and Trueblood's "Practical Elements of Elocution.")

In this position the hand is outstretched with the palm upward at an angle of about thirty degrees from the horizontal. The index finger is held straight and the others slightly bent **Supine Hand.**

inward. It is used in positive assertion, imperative demand, concession, and emphatic affirmation.

"The Union must and shall be preserved."

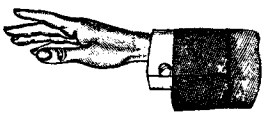
"Under existing circumstances war is impossible."

Illustrations. "This sentiment I will maintain with my last breath."

"Prosperity gains friends, adversity tries them."

"I concede all that my opponent claims."

"No pleasure is comparable to standing on the vantage-ground of truth."



The Prone Hand is the converse of the Supine Hand. It is outstretched with the palm downward, the fingers being in the same general position as described in the preceding. It is used in prohibitory command, repressive emotion, and in all cases where the thought suggests concealment, compulsion, or dejection.

Prone Hand.

"We buried him darkly at dead of night."

"From the centre to the far off-horizon of his power he could see nothing but the desolations he had made."

Illustrations.

"I had a dream that was not all a dream ;
The bright sun was extinguished, and the stars
Did wander, darkling in the eternal space;
Rayless and pathless, and the icy earth
Swung blind and blackening in the moonless air."

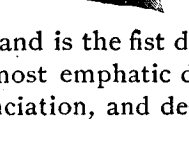
"I reject the imputation with scorn."

"That power is used not to benefit mankind, but to correct them."

"The face of the Lord is against them that do evil."

"I repel the base insinuation."

"With the lever of prayer resting on the fulcrum of faith we can move the world and lift it."



Clenched Hand.

The Clenched Hand is the fist doubled up for the expression of the most emphatic declaration, violent denunciation, and desperate resolve.

"I would never lay down my arms—never—never—never."

"I defy him ! let him come ! "

Illustrations.

"Treason has done his worst."

"And when we have resisted to the last, we will starve in the wastes of the glaciers. Ay, men, women and children, we will all be frozen into annihilation together ere one free Switzer will acknowledge a foreign master."

"I 'll have my bond : I will not hear thee speak ;
I 'll have my bond, and therefore speak no more."

"As a Roman, here in your very capital I defy you."

Both hands may be used together in certain attitudes which have the force of Gestures. The palms are pressed together in adoration, they are clasped to portray strong feeling, they are folded in deep anxiety or self-abasement, they are crossed upon the breast in veneration, and one hand may be pressed upon the heart in subdued emotion, or may clutch the clothing in the impulse of safety from threatened evil.

Both Hands.

"The Lord is in his holy temple."

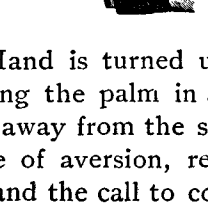
"The Lord is my shepherd; I shall not want."

Illustrations.

"O my son Absalom! my son, my son Absalom! Would to God I had died for thee, O Absalom, my son, my son."

"Religion raises men above themselves; irreligion sinks them beneath the brutes."

"On stream and wood the moonbeams rest, like a pale spotless shroud."



The Vertical Hand is turned upward sharply at the wrist presenting the palm in a vertical position turned away from the speaker. It is the Gesture of aversion, repulsion, deprecation, dispersion, and the call to command.

Vertical Hand.

"Ho! sound the tocsin from the tower."

"Hark! heard ye not that piercing cry?"

"O pardon me, thou bleeding piece of earth." Illustrations.

"I acknowledge my transgression.

"Let my heart be still a moment and this mystery explore."

"Thou hast given to that poor gentle, timid shepherd lad, muscles of iron and a heart of flint."

"For Heaven's sake, Hubert, let me not be bound."

The positions assumed by the lower extremities are not founded upon the idea of expression so much as upon that of graceful poise for the body. The lower limbs are the supporters of the trunk, and the movements applicable to them relate chiefly to the changes of attitude desirable, while the speaker is on the platform. Lower Limbs.

CORRECT POSITION OF LOWER LIMBS

The right foot is advanced so that a line drawn through it will strike the heel of the left. The weight of the body is supported upon the left foot, the preponderance being given to the ball of the foot. First Position.

Converse of First Position—left foot advanced and the weight of the body resting upon the right. Second Position.

The right foot is advanced and supports the weight of the body. Heel of left slightly raised, part of the ball of the left foot resting on the floor as if about to take a step forward. Third Position.

Converse of Third Position—left foot advanced and supporting the weight of the body. Heel of right slightly raised, part of the ball of right foot resting on the floor.

Fourth Position.

The Fifth Position is the military position, the body resting squarely on both feet, placed at an angle of about 75 degrees.

Fifth Position.

Stand in the Fifth Position, observing its rigidity, and how difficult it would be to speak long with the body at such muscular tension. Change will soon be found desirable.

Exercises in Position.

EXERCISES FOR LOWER LIMBS

Raise the balls of the feet from the floor, balancing on the heels. Hold the position for ten seconds.

Raise the heels upward, balancing on the balls of the feet. Return to Fifth Position and alternate with the preceding.

Lift the left foot and thrust it out forward, obliquely, and laterally, returning each time to original position.

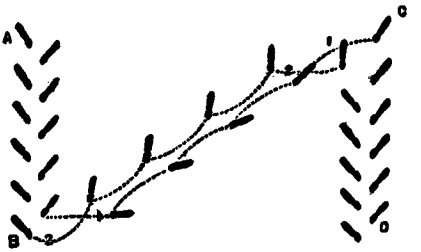
Lift the right foot and exercise the same as in the preceding. Alternate first right and then left foot.

Thrust left foot backward and rest on toe. Repeat with right foot.

Change from First Position to Third and then to Second by advancing left foot as the weight of the body passes to the right. Alternate from Second Position to Fourth and then to First by advancing right foot as prescribed above. This exercise will enable the speaker to shift his position with ease and grace as often as may be desirable.

The public speaker should do no walking on the stage. Change of position may be effected as pointed out in the preceding exercises, and the orator may go from one side of the rostrum to the other and back again without attracting the least attention to his movements. The subjoined diagram from [1] "The Orator's Manual," Raymond, representing how Edward Everett moved about the platform during the delivery of one of his orations will be found suggestive and helpful.

Movement on the Platform.



Beginning at A, he kept gradually drawing one foot behind the other till, in the course of five or ten minutes, he had reached B. From B, during an animated passage, he walked rapidly across the stage to C, but moved forward diagonally, with the right foot foremost, so none saw his feet cross. Then he retired gradually to D, and from here walked across to A again, with the left foot foremost; and so on throughout the evening.

Too much stress cannot be laid upon graceful

[1] By permission of Silver, Burdett and Company, publishers.

motion and attitude for the public speaker, and the several positions of the lower extremities, as well as the attitudes of the trunk and gestures of arms and hands, need to be studied with as much perseverance and care as the details of vocal technique.

Gracefulness.

Facial expression bears a more important relation to acting than to public speaking. There are, however, a few points to be considered from the standpoint of platform oratory. The face as a whole is capable of a great variety of expression, and its help is not to be ignored when seeking to portray moods and emotions by eloquent vocal utterance.

The Face.

At the will of the speaker the face may be lighted with the animation of hope, exultation, and the enthusiasm of joy, or it may be darkened with the frown of indignation. It may be blanched by fear and pinched by suffering, or it may wear the cloak of concealment or treachery.

The eyes have an important function to perform in facial expression, and should be held in perfect control by the public speaker. French teachers say of the eye that it burns, strains, twinkles, swims, is savage, fierce, serious, insinuating, or sensual.

The Eye.

To the voice-user, control of the audience is the prime object of consideration, and in this the eye serves a useful purpose. By means of it the speaker invites and holds attention, at the same time marking the direction of thought and indicating the position of objects in the mental picture which is being

delineated. Therefore, the first rule for the public speaker is to keep his eyes on the audience, allowing his gaze to pass from one to another, until each feels that a part of the message delivered was intended for him.

In the following spirited words of Lord Thurlow in reply to the Duke of Grafton, it is easy to conceive how the eyes of the speaker may have aided him in denouncing his political opponent. .

Illustration.

"I am amazed at the attack which the noble Duke has made on me. Yes, my Lords, I am amazed at his Grace's speech. The noble Duke cannot look before him, behind him, or on either side of him, without seeing some noble Peer who owes his seat in this House to his successful exertions in the profession to which I belong. Does he not feel that it is as honorable to owe it to these, as to being the accident of an accident! To all these noble Lords the language of the noble Duke is as applicable, and as insulting, as it is to myself. But I do not fear to meet it single and alone."

The Brows.

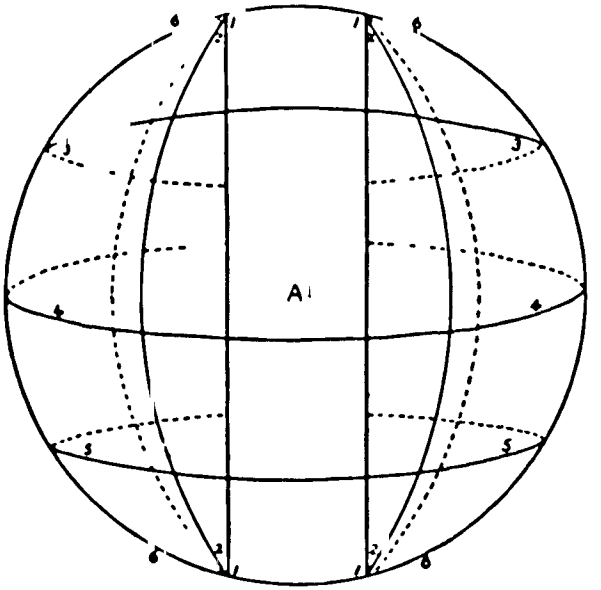
The brows are chiefly used as aids to the eyes in developing the phases of expression of which they are capable. The brows are raised in wonder, knit together in deep thought, and drawn downward in anger.

The Nostrils.

The nostrils, likewise, are capable of accentuating a few forms of expression. They are dilated in defiance and scorn, normal in the language of description, and pinched in pain or deep sorrow.

The mouth, besides being the chief organ of articulation, is also indicative of the varying moods of mind. Compression of the lips is expressive of decision and a positive purpose. The mouth stands open in astonishment, alarm, or

The Mouth.



LINES OF REST IE.

1, 1 *Fr nt* 2, 2 *n* 3, 3 *d cruing* 4, 4 *Hori-*
z n a. 5, 5 *l n n* *l t* *n k* *n*
A *d p nt n th nt r f* *n t r d f* *a t n fr m*
th r n n th r f

the vacant stare of idiocy. It smiles in affection, laughs in mirth, is drawn down in rage, and the lips are slightly parted in devotion or hopeful expectancy.

With reference to their form, Gestures are made in certain lines, which it is convenient to name and specify. These are of two kinds—straight and curved. **Lines of Gesture.**

The straight lines of Gesture are vertical, and are three in number—Front, Oblique, and Lateral, corresponding to the lines of longitude on a globe. **Straight Lines.**

The front lines are immediately in front of the speaker, separated from each by the width of the shoulders, called respectively Right and Left Front Lines. Gestures are made in this line in personal address, challenge, or command. **Front Lines.**

"Let another man praise thee, and not thine own mouth; a stranger, and not thine own lips."

"Stand firm for your country, and become a man honored and loved." **Illustrations.**

"This, above all, to thine own self be true."

"Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with thy might."

"Think for thyself one good idea."

The oblique lines are separated from those in front by angles of 45 degrees, midway between Front and Lateral. They are designated as Right and Left Oblique. **Oblique Lines.**

"These things are certainly true."

"Of all mistakes none are so fatal as those we incur through prejudice." **Illustrations.**

"The assertions of my opponent are false in every particular."

"There is a material difference between giving and forgiving."

"Prosperity gains friends, adversity tries them."

Lateral Lines. The lateral lines are at the side in the vertical plane of the shoulders, called respectively Right and Left Laterals.

"Honor and virtue, nay, even interest, demands a different course."

Illustrations. "He disclaims the authority of the king."

"The army was reduced to utter destitution."

"But yesterday, the word of Cæsar might
Have stood against the world; now lies he there,
And none so poor to do him reverence."

Curved Lines. The curved lines of Gesture are horizontal and are three in number, corresponding to the lines of latitude on a globe. They are named Ascending, Horizontal, and Descending.

Ascending Line. The ascending line is above the horizontal plane, passing across the top of the head, corresponding to the Epic Radius of Dr. Gilbert Austin.

"Aspire to the highest and noblest attainments."

"Climb to the mountain top."

Illustrations. "Thou sun! of this great world both eye and soul."

"The throne of eternity is a throne of mercy and love."

"On Jordan's stormy banks I stand,
And cast a wishful eye
To Canaan's fair and happy land
Where my possessions lie."

The horizontal line is in the plane of the shoulders, and corresponds with the Rhetorical Radius of the Austin nomenclature. **Horizontal Line.**

"He generously extended the arm of power to ward off the blow."

"The face of the Lord is against them that do evil." **Illustrations.**

"Thou tempting fiend, avaunt!"

"I repel the base insinuation."

"I hate and abhor lying, but Thy law do I love."

"The torrent roar'd, and we did buffet it
With lusty sinews; throwing it aside,
And stemming it with hearts of controversy."

"Whence and what art thou, execrable shape!"

The descending line is below the waist, or in the Colloquial Radius. **Descending Line.**

"To prevail in the cause that is dearer than life,
Or be crush'd in its ruins to die!" **Illustrations.**

"They forthwith to the place
Repairing where he judged them, prostrate fell
Before him reverent."

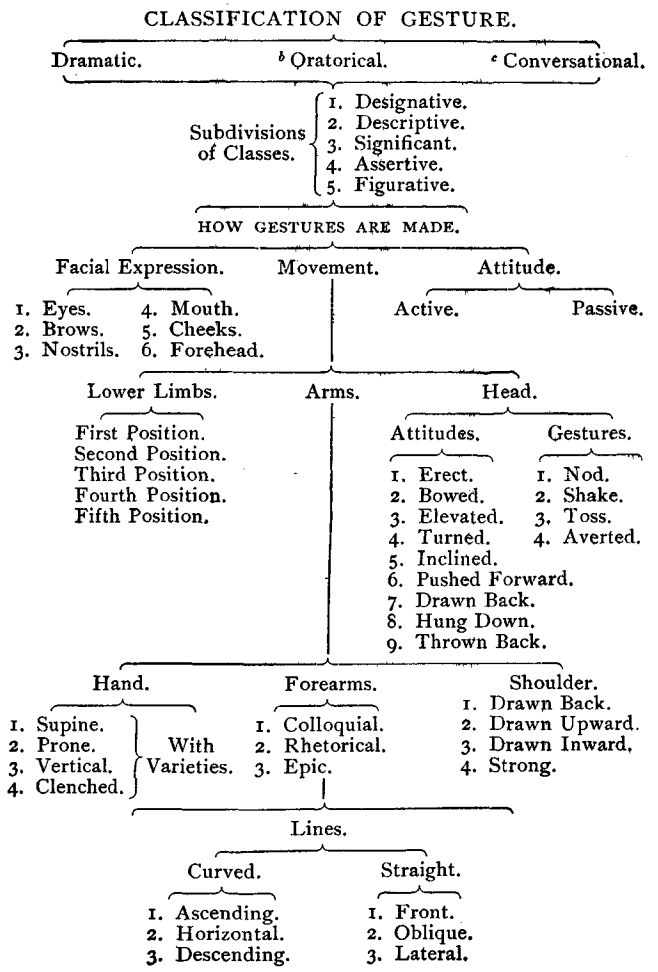
"If we attempt to compass the idea of eternity, we are overwhelmed by the contemplation of a theme so vast."

In making gestures the fact should not be lost sight of that their purpose is to illustrate or emphasize the spoken word. Hence the appropriate gesture always has what is termed the emphatic stroke, or ictus, terminating upon the utterance of the word or syllable which it is desired to render prominent. This requires harmony between voice and action, which, if lacking, robs Gesture of half its effectiveness.

Ictus of the Gesture.

When the gesture is finished and its mission is complete, the hand and arm should return easily and gracefully to their natural position at the side. This is accomplished by allowing the muscles to relax at the moment of the ictus, and by withdrawing the arm quickly through the action of the shoulder. In no case allow the arm to drop or fall to the side.

After the Gesture.


CLASSIFICATION OF GESTURE.
Dramatic.
[b] Oratorical.
[c] Conversational.
Subdivisions of Classes.
1. Designative.
2. Descriptive.
3. Significant.
4. Assertive.
5. Figurative.
HOW GESTURES ARE MADE.
Facial Expression.
Movement.
Attitude.
1. Eyes.
2. Brows.
3. Nostrils.
4. Mouth.
5. Cheeks.
6. Forehead.
Active.
Passive.
Lower Limbs.
Arms.
Head.
First Position.
Second Position.
Third Position.
Fourth Position.
Fifth Position.
Attitudes.
1. Erect.
2. Bowed.
3. Elevated.
4. Turned.
5. Inclined.
6. Pushed Forward.
7. Drawn Back.
8. Hung Down.
9. Thrown Back.
Gestures.
1. Nod.
2. Shake.
3. Toss.
4. Averted.
Hand.
1. Supine.
2. Prone.
3. Vertical.
4. Clenched.
With Varieties.
Forearms.
1. Colloquial.
2. Rhetorical.
3. Epic.
Shoulder.
1. Drawn Back.
2. Drawn Upward.
3. Drawn Inward.
4. Strong.
Lines.
Curved.
1. Ascending.
2. Horizontal.
3. Descending.
Straight.
1. Front.
2. Oblique.
3. Lateral.

PART II

USING THE VOICE

CHAPTER VIII

HISTORY OF ORATORY

Beginnings of Eloquence—Oratory in Greece—Examples of its Power—Demosthenes—Oratory in Rome—Cicero—Quintilian—The Christian Fathers—Mediæval Orators—Peter the Hermit—The Evangel of Florence—Period of the Reformation—John Calvin—John Knox—British and American Eloquence—Lord Erskine—William Pitt—Fox—Gladstone—Patrick Henry—John Randolph—Fathers of the Constitution—Congressional Oratory—William Pinkney—Clay, Calhoun, and Webster—Edward Everett—Wendell Phillips—Charles Sumner—Thaddeus Stevens—Henry Ward Beecher—Contemporary Orators.

THE people of Greece regarded the art of eloquence as of celestial origin. In their legends it was described as the gift of Hermes, interpreter and messenger of the Court of Olympus. This is only another way of expressing the truth that oratory antedates authentic history, and that its beginnings are lost in the mists of tradition. The earliest records prove that they are but the outgrowth of spoken thought. The development of the art in Greece at the time of the Attic orators affords proof that eloquence had flourished for centuries before the Golden Age of Greece, and we are not simply speculating in probabilities when we discuss the

existence of a high state of oratorical cultivation in the civilizations of Carthage, Tyre, Babylon, and along the valley of the Nile.

For the student of to-day the history of oratory begins with Homer and continues to our own day. The subject is of vast interest and scope, and its literature is of great extent.

It is evident, therefore, that in a single chapter only a general survey of it can be presented, and the briefest mention made of the many great orators of ancient and modern times.

Oratory in Greece.

Eloquence may never again exercise such sway as it attained in Athens. It has been well said that oratory and liberty are twins, and from the beginning of her history Greece flourished in the warm light of freedom. One of the first acts of the tyrant is to stifle liberty of speech, and to put fetters upon general enlightenment. It is not surprising, therefore, that as long as independence lasted the Athenian lived in the Agora. The nation was a pure democracy. It met in the popular assembly to decide every question of importance to the State. Eloquence naturally played an important part in political debates, which were ended by ballot, with the words of the last speaker on the Bema ringing in the ears of the voters. The Athenian assembly was, undoubtedly, a difficult audience to control and hold. The sentimental and not the critical instinct predominated, and the last speaker possessed an enormous advantage. Yet the difficult problem was solved by such masters of oratory as Pericles, Gorgias, Æschines, Lysias, and

Demosthenes. The power of eloquence was on many occasions strikingly exemplified in Greece. An Athenian army having been conquered by that of Sicily, Diocles, an orator beloved by the multitude, advised his countrymen to slay the captured generals and to throw the soldiers into prison. The Sicilians shouted assent to the horrible conditions, and were about to ratify them with their votes. But Nicolaus arose and begged the victors to extend clemency to the conquered. He had lost two sons in battle, and his pleas so moved the people that they were about to release the captives. Finally Gylippus, a Spartan general, spoke, ridiculing the weakness of the assembly, and admonishing them to duty. His argument prevailed and the punishment was promptly voted. Thucydides mentions an incident in Athens in which the Mityleneans had revolted and were condemned to death at the instigation of Cleon. On the following day Diodotus rebuked the people for permitting such cruelty, and the decision was reversed. It was thus that the plebiscite decided important questions without appeal, for all affairs of state were left to the consideration of the people. They voted concerning peace and war, alliances with other cities, and the life and death of captured enemies. They passed upon the cases of persons charged with treason or such vague crimes as corrupting the youth.

In a country where oratory flourished spontaneously there were naturally many brilliant exponents of the art. A long list of eminent advocates, political debaters, and deliberative

Demosthenes.

orators meets the reader as he dips into Grecian history. But one luminary eclipses all, and one figure stands without a rival. Demosthenes was the most conspicuous orator of his country and his time, if not the greatest in the history of the world. His power of persuasion was boundless, and his influence over the people of Athens greater than that of any king would have been. His addresses that have been preserved to the world are models of the public speaker's art, and have endured as types of perfection in oratory. The secret of the great Athenian's success lay in the fact that he was an honest man. Patriotism vibrated in every fibre of his being, and his lofty character never could descend to the tricks of the advocate and demagogue. His oratory was distinguished by a vigor, energy, and sublimity consistent with his character as a citizen and a man. History has revealed the fact that he was an indomitable and persevering worker, culling all that was valuable from the productions of others, and submitting it to the fires of his own genius.

Eloquence was indigenous to Greece, but a transplanted flower in Rome. Unlike the Hellenes, the Romans did not cultivate the arts, other than that of war. Their ambition was to subdue the world, rather than to sit in their walled towns listening to the rhapsodies of the poet or the hair-splitting deductions of the philosopher. They were a martial race, devoted to feats of arms and the discipline of the camp and the battlefield. Accordingly, they came by slow steps into the possession of a national literature, and to the development

Oratory in Rome.

of poetry, sculpture, and oratory. Indeed, it was not until the Romans subdued Greece, that art and learning conquered them.

But the soil of Rome proved congenial to Hellenic culture. Its people were a sturdy and energetic race, whose practical minds could absorb and appropriate what was found serviceable in the provinces which their legions overran. The Roman language was possessed of a terseness and rugged energy which lent itself readily to expressing the conceptions of the poet, historian, and orator. Therefore, while the models remained Greek, and while Roman art and literature received their inspiration on the eastern side of the Adriatic, the time arrived at last, in the days of Cicero and Quintilian, when Rome had a long line of orators and statesmen to which she could point with pride.

The legends of Rome tell us of some remarkable feats of oratory. It was the speech of Brutus and his holding aloft the bloody knife with which Lucretia had been slain that fired the people to expel the Tarquin. Virginius was, perhaps, a rude but powerful speaker. Blind Appius Claudius overcame the messenger of Pyrrhus in debate, and saved Rome from a tyrant's oppression. Cato, the Censor, marks the transition from tradition to history, and few more rugged characters appear upon the pages of history. The Scipios followed, with Galba and the Gracchi, thrilling orators of a stirring age. Later still, illustrious names appear, such as Curio, Scævola, and Publius Sulpicius. Mark Antony, grandfather of the triumvir,

Early Roman Orators.

left an impression upon his time as a successful advocate. Crassus and Hortensius were also noted and eloquent orators, who made way for Cicero as he entered the Roman courts.

With the advent of Cicero and his successor, Quintilian, oratory and rhetoric became Roman sciences. Both were trained by Grecian masters, and both imbibed the inspiration of Greek influence. But each in his own way thought for himself, and put into form, in the Latin language, the teachings of the world in the kindred arts, of which they were the greatest exponents in Rome. In the period to which they belong oratory flourished, and history recalls the names of Cæsar, Brutus, and Cælius; of Curio, Calvus, and Callidus.

Cicero.

We may select as the type of a Roman orator, Marcus Tullius Cicero (born in Arpinium, January 3, 107 B.C.). He combined the talent of both Demosthenes and Aristotle. That is to say, he was the orator-rhetorician of his time. His addresses were ornate and highly polished gems of speech. The orations against Cataline rise almost to the level of the philippics of the great Athenian. Cicero did not confine his genius to forensic eloquence, but produced works of merit, which in later times would have been called essays. While not equal to Demosthenes as an orator, his versatility as a writer and public speaker was much greater. And to whatever extent Cicero's fame may suffer by comparison with his great rival, he may be called a prince of eloquence.

What Aristotle was to Greece, Quintilian was to

DHIRAJLAL KESHAVLAL THAKORE,

Rome. He was a teacher of rhetoric by profession, but gained eminence as an advocate in the courts. His influence upon the oratory and literature of his country was prodigious, and his writings are still authoritative to those who go to original sources in the study of rhetoric. Quintilian.

The advent of St. Paul at Athens and Rome gave a new direction and impulse to oratory. A fresh topic of discussion was introduced, and public disputations passed from political to religious polemics. The Man of Nazareth had inaugurated a new movement in civilization on the plains of Judea. The Apostle Paul was the evangelist who made the message known to the Roman world. He made a partial circuit of the Mediterranean, stirring the masses by his earnest words. Slowly the new doctrines made headway, until they gained a hearing in the palace of the Cæsars, and Constantine espoused the Christian religion. One of his first acts was to proclaim freedom of speech, and under that decree, discussion assumed a breadth and depth which literally shook the pillars of state, and caused the foundations of the Church to tremble. The Nicene controversy arose. Athanasius, of Alexandria, appeared upon the scene. He was the true Demosthenes of the Church, and, animated by his example, religious oratory for a time assumed the place of eminence which forensic eloquence had formerly held. Chrysostom and Basil of Cæsarea followed in that list of Greek fathers which ended in Gregory of Nazianzen, —all eloquent men who left an enduring mark upon The Christian Fathers.

the theological disputations of a peculiarly stormy age.

In Rome the work of the Church was directed by such noted preachers and bishops as Tertullian of Carthage, Ambrose of Milan, the incomparable Augustine, and Leo the Great. The seriousness of the orations of these men make them rather dry reading at the present day, but in cogency of argument, force of utterance, and masterly array of facts set forward by logical processes of reasoning, they are without parallel in the history of oratory. Indeed, it is impossible to peruse the speeches of the Greek and Latin Fathers without being impressed by the fact that the advocates of religious opinion in the early centuries of the Christian era were men of genius as well as conviction.

The Mediæval Orators.

With the political changes which took place in the eighth century the lamp of learning apparently went out. Eloquence, even in the pulpit, fell into decline, and for a long period only an occasional religious teacher rose above the hopeless mediocrity of the times. The monastery absorbed the talent of all countries, and too often the monks sat down contentedly to endless tasks of copying manuscripts and compiling chronicles. There was no study or research worthy of the name, and art and science were veiled for three hundred years. Among ecclesiastics the ritual was regarded of more importance than religious instruction, and public preaching fell into neglect and almost into disuse.

Paulinus of Britain and the Venerable Bede for a

time kept pulpit oratory bright in the West, as did Boniface, Rabanus, Duns Scotis, Thomas Aquinas, Ratramnus, and Damiani in France, Germany, and the East. But the efforts of these men were not to be compared with the oratory of the Church Fathers or with those of the great speakers which followed. They appear bright only because of the surrounding darkness.

But out of mediæval gloom came a light which illumined Europe. Peter of Amiens, styled the Hermit, found a message to proclaim. His soul revolted against the apathy that allowed the tomb of the Saviour of men to remain in the hands of the infidel. With this one idea burning in his brain, he went from city to city and country to country, giving it fervid utterance. The people of Europe were awe-struck at the earnestness of the emaciated figure, whose voice thrilling their hearts with its earnest appeal, convinced them of their duty in the holy cause. Principalities and powers gave heed to his words, and the nations of Western Europe marshalled their warlike hosts and set out for Palestine. Urban II. gave the movement his sanction, declaring it to be the will of God, and all Europe was filled with the one idea of wiping the stain from the banners of the Church. Peter was small of stature and contemptible of habit, yet his message, so eloquently delivered, had a lasting result upon the fortunes of Europe. A long list of eminent religious teachers, including Anselm, Bruno, Bernard of Clairvaux, and Antony of Padua, took up the work of the Hermit and

Peter the Hermit.

preached the Crusades. Although the Crusades did not win for Christendom the tomb of its Master, yet they were awakening and formative impulses to progress. An incentive had been given to industry and commerce, and the world sprang from the lethargy of the Dark Ages to the activity of the Middle Ages. As always, the voice of the orator was the sound which echoed through the night, announcing the near approach of day.

The Teacher of Florence.

In the transition period from the mediæval to modern times a man of surpassing eloquence and great influence appeared in the city of Florence. Like Peter the Hermit, he had a cause to advocate which called into activity all the energies of a pure and fervent soul. It was Savonarola, the Friar of St. Mark's. His mission was to rebuke the vices of a dissolute and luxurious age, and to work a radical change in society. Florence, when this reformer began to preach, was possibly the wickedest city in Europe. It was filled with nobles attached to the court of the Medici whose profligacy was measured only by their wealth. Savonarola, after being carefully educated as a priest, set himself resolutely to re-establish the moral standard. His message at first was scorned, then ridiculed, listened to with curiosity, and, in the end, the people flocked to the church to be convinced of their sins and to abandon them. Savonarola's triumph, when, after a powerful sermon in the pulpit of St. Mark's Church, the people gathered about him in tears to acknowledge their faults, was as great as orator ever won. Had he died in August,

1489, his fame would have been immortal, but unfortunately he lived to find his power over the people of Florence diminished, and to see many of them return to their evil ways.

Savonarola was the connecting link between the era of the Church Fathers and that of Luther, Hugh Latimer, and John Knox. Martin Luther was not a great orator. He did not want in courage or conviction, but he was not a man of polished diction or of that quality of imagination which suits the pulpit. He lacked some of the prime requisites of the oratorical art. He spoke the truth with ponderous dignity and force, and few scenes in history have been more dramatic than his famous utterance before the Diet of Worms. Yet Luther was a teacher rather than an orator, and seemed to be lacking in those graces of speech which characterized the silvery-voiced Melanchthon. Luther's rugged nature was cut out for the hard knocks of the theological battle, in which he was called to engage, but his success was due rather to the persistent energy of his purpose than to the gift of eloquence.

Orators of the Reformation.

Second to Luther in point of reputation, and more than his match in oratory, was John Calvin, the preacher of the Reformation in Geneva. As public teacher, spiritual guide, and lawgiver to the people of Geneva, his influence was great. As an expounder of the Protestant doctrines he was impressive and convincing, and by the force of his instruction and example he converted a city from profligacy and vice to order and

John Calvin.

morality. Geneva became the city of refuge for religious exiles, and even the great Luther accomplished no more for the Reformation than did his determined, eloquent, and successful contemporary in Geneva.

In like manner Zwingli of Zürich, Melanchthon, the Preceptor of Germany; Flavel and Viret, contemporaries of Calvin, and Hugh Latimer of England, were among the great preachers of the period.

John Knox has been called the real orator of the Reformation. He approached his work with that vehemence and fervor which always marks the man of great oratorical abilities. His denunciations drove the rulers of states to desperation, and united all classes against the corruptions of the Church. He roused Scotland by the boldness of his utterances, and by sheer force of persuasiveness moved its Queen to tears. When old and stricken with disease he was forced to flee from Scotland, but his voice was still lifted for the reform of the Church in foreign lands, and the name of John Knox is no less intimately associated with the Reformation than that of Martin Luther.

John Knox.

Oratory had a somewhat late development in modern England. The demands of the pulpit and of Parliament occasionally kindled the fires of eloquence, but it was not until the eighteenth century that eminent geniuses of the bar and the forum appeared. Whether this was due to the inherent character of the Briton or to the peculiarities of English law is a question not yet settled by the critics. But when once the study

British Orators.

and practice of oratory was seriously undertaken, the ranks of the orators of England were crowded with speakers of the first rank. Men great in statesmanship and great in oratory appeared, who have been an honor to their country. To most students the names of Bolingbroke, Chatham, Pitt, Fox, and Burke are familiar, as are those of Grattan, Curran, Brougham, Canning, Bright, and Gladstone. These and others are among the great parliamentary leaders of the last two centuries, and scarcely a man has risen to the high eminence of prime minister of great Britain, who has not been possessed of more than ordinary oratorical abilities.

Lord Erskine was one of Great Britain's brilliant lawyers and advocates at the bar. His versatile talents lifted him from a condition of poverty into the seat of the Lord Chancellor. He was recognized by his contemporaries as one of the most learned and eloquent men of his time. Erskine's fame as an advocate rests chiefly upon his celebrated argument in the Stockdale case, in which the law of libel was involved. John Stockdale, of London, published a pamphlet during the trial of Warren Hastings, in which the conduct of the prosecution was criticized. Stockdale was indicted for libel, and Lord Erskine defended him in court. His argument on this occasion was so masterful, and his pleading so effective that the people of England were aroused, and a pernicious principle in the procedure of trying cases of libel was repealed by an Act of Parliament. Erskine was, possibly, the greatest forensic debater the world has yet pro-

Lord Erskine.

duced, and his career is all the more remarkable from the fact that his success was due to his own industry and energy.

William Pitt.

Among the distinguished men whose names appear in the Parliaments of the eighteenth century, it is difficult to single out one as the representative of the whole, but perhaps that distinction should rest upon William Pitt. But in making this selection the talents of Fox and Burke and Grattan are not forgotten or ignored. William Pitt was the child of genius, and ambition was the predominant trait of his character. He was specially educated for a public career and his gifts of intellect bore him to the front as soon as opportunity offered for their exercise. Mr. Pitt was an orator rather than a statesman. His addresses in Parliament on the American war were superior even to those of Burke. The speeches on the French Revolution and on the Peace of 1783 were notable examples of rhetorical finish and forcible utterance. He educated Parliament and trained the people of England in political wisdom, and his instructions had a potent influence in preparing the way for the glory of the Victorian reign.

Charles James Fox.

In all except the gift of eloquence, Fox was a figure in sharp contrast with that of Pitt. Judged by any standard of morals at all severe, Fox was without character. His avowed ambition was playing to win in games of chance, and his career was one of contradictions so marked as to awaken wonder in the mind of the student. Fox spent the night in dissipation, the morning in re-

covering from its effects, the afternoon at the races, and the evening in the House of Commons. Study was irksome to him, and most of his oratorical triumphs were won on questions of the hour. Fox violated all the conventionalities of correct public speaking, shrieking his impassioned words and stammering over quieter periods in a way to distress his hearers. Yet this man, who loved pleasure more than power, was one of the greatest orators England ever produced. Not even Burke, Pitt, or Brougham could excel him in debate.

William E. Gladstone.

No outline of British oratory would be complete without reference to Mr. Gladstone. His career, as well as his fame, fills the nineteenth century. Concerning his place as an orator, Mr. James Bryce says that few famous speakers would be famous if they were tried alone by the written record of their speeches, and Gladstone is one of them. Mr. Gladstone was, however, more than an orator and more than a statesman. He shone in the firmament of letters, and his character was one of the grandest in history. His contemporaries never will forget the flash of his eye, the keenness of his wit, and the music of his matchless voice, displayed for more than sixty years in the House of Commons. His speeches may never become classics, but his influence upon the fortunes of his country will never be forgotten while history endures.

American Eloquence.

Vigorous oratory has flourished in the United States from the beginning. As a people we have never been without capable and fearless men to voice the wrongs of oppression or

to defend the noble sentiments of patriotism and liberty. The Colonial and Revolutionary periods of our history were crowded with events as thrilling as ever stirred the multitudes of Athens and of Sparta. The colonies produced a host of great speakers, among them John Quincy Adams, Otis, Pinckney, and Henry, the last of whom fitly bore the title of the American Demosthenes. In the Congressional era also, eminent names appear, and nowhere else in the history of the world have such a trio of great orators shone forth as Clay, Calhoun, and Webster. And there were Sumner, Phillips, Crittenden, and Toombs, Seward and Stephens, Benjamin and Douglas, Gough, Beecher, and Everett, and many others, not to mention the immortal Washington and Lincoln, to swell the list of our eloquent public men and religious teachers. Indeed, while liberty is the twin of eloquence, enlightenment is the handmaid of both, and in the universal education of these United States the fire of oratory has burned with unrivalled brilliancy.

The Colonial Period.

In the Colonial period appear the names of Samuel Adams, James Otis, Patrick Henry, and John Rutledge. They were the legitimate successors of the great parliamentary orators of Great Britain, from whom they derived inspiration and example. But the Americans of that early day were something more than imitators. The fires of their genius burned in a new world, unrestrained by any influence or tradition from abroad. Each patriot had an abiding conviction that the policy of England was wrong, and that George III. was a tyrant to be

resisted to the very death. Breathing the air of freedom and appealing to a people of sympathetic sentiments, there was every incentive to eloquence, and it is no surprise to the student of history to find the American colonies resounding with impassioned oratory. Samuel Adams was the typical leader of the New England town meeting—a man of sterling character, and one whose convictions might have led him to the burning stake. He was one of the great colonial orators. James Otis was the official mouthpiece of the Revolution in Massachusetts,—serious, and at times vehement, but not a man of transcendant oratorical abilities.

Patrick Henry.

As the representative of the Colonial period the mind goes instinctively to Patrick Henry. The record of his speeches is very meagre, and they cannot be studied with the microscope of literary criticism. But Henry's influence upon the people of his time has passed into tradition, and few men have ever won the distinction which Virginia ascribed to her loyal and eloquent son. The story of Patrick Henry's rise to fame has been repeated hundreds of times, and his great speech before the Virginia Burgesses has been declaimed in almost every schoolhouse of the land. In fact, the single phrase of that oration, "We must fight! I repeat it, sir, we must fight!" was the electric thrill of the Revolution. In personal appearance Patrick Henry was not prepossessing. Nature denied him beauty of form or feature and gracefulness of motion. But when he rose to address the people his homely visage was lighted by the glow of

eloquence, until his face beamed with "the glory of an archangel." Juries sided with him in defiance of law or evidence. The Virginia Assembly not only followed his lead into war with England, but voted supplies for men and put more soldiers in the field at the beginning than any other colony. They gladly and perhaps blindly worshipped their idol, whose vehement words could rouse and thrill them as no other power on earth. The secret of Henry's power lay in his natural love for the people of Virginia. They were his friends and they were his first thought and care. He resisted oppression because it afflicted the people, he advocated war that they might be free. Finally, he represented them in the Colonial Congress because he was their natural champion and leader.

The Revolutionary Period.

The Revolution, and the organization of a national government immediately following it, brought into the arena a new contingent of orators. They had serious questions of state-craft to deal with, and while the form of discussion was changed, the debates of the Constitutional period were carried on with signal ability and power. Out of the deliberations of the assembly which met in Philadelphia in 1787 came the fabric of a nation. In that gathering all seemingly were orators, and its several sessions were graced with fervent and eloquent speech.

Fathers of the Constitution.

But the Constitutional Assembly brought together men of more practical minds, if possessed of less eloquence. Alexander Hamilton, Robert Morris, and Benjamin

Franklin were among the group of statesmen who figured in the debates. It is doubtful whether any other assembly was ever made up of more capable men. The deliberation of the Convention was not marked by a few brilliant addresses set down verbatim for the admiration of posterity. On the contrary, it was a gathering of representative men, who had fought their way to freedom, and now were intent upon preserving the fruits of victory. It was primarily a protracted debate, and all reports agree in ascribing to the speeches made unusual excellence, energy, and power.

Congressional Orators.

After the foundations of the national government had been laid, deliberative oratory of the highest type passed into the halls of Congress. It was there state questions were discussed, and the brightest talent of the era was allured to the United States Senate. Locally the political debater found opportunity to display his powers in many and varied ways, but the ambitions of able men in the States led them to Washington to engage in conflicts of discussion over national legislation. From the beginning the United States Senate was the theatre of oratory, and eloquence there has always been of an exceedingly high order. It is impossible even to record the names of those who have earned renown as public speakers in Washington, but in number and achievement the record is one of which any American may be proud.

At the very beginning appears the figure of William Pinkney, of Maryland. By profession he was

a lawyer, and because of his attainment and success at the bar he was chosen to represent the people of his native State in Congress. Mr. Pinkney was a man of large stature and athletic mould. Vigor of mind and body were written on every line of his strong and graceful frame, and his countenance was both striking and handsome. His power as an orator lay in finished and convincing argument. Before juries he had few equals; upon the hustings he carried votes by sheer force of logic, and in Congress he swept down opposition and sophistry with a power which delighted his friends and appalled his enemies. Every case he argued had merits of its own, and in its presentation his analysis was so luminous, and his arrangement so skilful, that resistance against the chain with which he linked his argument was unavailing. He had some of Webster's profundity, and more than Webster's versatility as a public speaker, for Pinkney was a master of humor, ridicule, and pathos.

William Pinkney.

John Randolph, of Roanoke, was one of the most notable orators of the post-Revolutionary period. He was, as another has remarked, "the lineal descendant of Patrick Henry and the predecessor of Calhoun." Ambition with him was a serious fault; and his eccentricities repelled friendships and marred the progress of his advancement. Bitter and resentful, intemperate and ever unhappy, this child of genius went through his public career opposing his friends, grieving his constituency, and constantly in conflict with authority. He opposed the war with England at its beginning, and could

John Randolph.

find no better phrase than "a handful of ragamuffins," with which to characterize the veterans at its end. But with all his faults, Randolph was a man of courage and an orator of superior powers. His invective stung like a rapier, and his maledictions upon the policy pursued by Virginia and his country compelled attention, while he wounded and exasperated his hearers. Almost always the advocate of the wrong side of any public question, he still foretold with remarkable prophetic power the Nullification Controversy and the Civil War.

Three of our most eminent Congressional orators were contemporaries. By virtue of the geographical position of their constituencies, as well as by the remarkable differences of their individual powers, they were representatives of public opinion during the period of their long service in Congress. Webster represented New England, Calhoun the South, and Clay the border line between the two. There is, therefore, special propriety in considering these Senatorial giants in a group. The name of each is a household word, for such resplendent genius could not be confined within sectional limits or bound by the rancor of the times in which they lived.

Clay, Calhoun, and Webster.

These three men were great orators, but there all comparison among them ends. Webster was solid, argumentative, massive, and grand as the granite hills of New Hampshire. Clay was versatile, vivacious, resourceful, and merry as the sunshine on the blue meadows of Kentucky. Calhoun was spiteful in spirit, terse in utterance, sharp as steel in sarcasm

and invective, wedded to tradition, and true to his convictions. The three were an oratorical combination unsurpassed in the history of the world.

John C. Calhoun was an exponent of the faculty of keen analysis. He could grasp the most intricate subject and separate it into its component elements with an ease of manner and proficiency of stroke that was the envy and admiration of his age. His addresses were lucid and convincing, and though the audience might differ with every sentiment his words conveyed and abhor his conclusions, yet there was no doubt left in the mind that Calhoun, himself, was uttering the convictions of his inmost heart. Mr. Calhoun never forgot the infinitesimal subtleties of formal logic or failed to set his speech in the refinements of chaste and terse expression. He formed phrases and polished his style with unremitting industry. Few examples of clean cut and forcible oratory can be found to surpass random passages in his speeches. He was the idol of the South and its gallant champion and defender in the United States Senate.

John C. Calhoun.

Henry Clay was the embodiment of oratorical enthusiasm. Poetical in temperament, chivalric by nature, and impulsive to a fault, his public address was like, the 'performance of a church organ with every stop in order, and at the command of the artist at the keyboard.' His speeches abound in wit, and in almost every paragraph can be discovered brilliant flashes of fancy, which must have carried his audience by storm. Clay's eloquence, indeed, was the full complement

Henry Clay.

of oratorical wit—the natural emanation of his versatile and many-sided character. Of the three orators we are considering, he was by far the most popular, and it was only the unbending logic of events that kept him from the Presidential chair.

Daniel Webster was like a Doric column upholding the principles and policy of New England. His convictions, like those of Calhoun, were none the less sincere and binding on the conscience, because they were inherited. In those convictions he was immovable as the eternal hills, and to their defence he brought as great strength of argument and reasoning as was ever arrayed in any cause. Webster was never brilliant, in the sense that either one of his contemporaries was. Even his wit was ponderous, and of fancy or pathos there was little in his addresses. He was moved always by the serious sense of duty, and in his famous reply to Hayne—the most notable of all his orations—there is the same earnestness and almost sadness of expression which generally marked his public utterances. His eloquence was Websterian, and it became necessary to coin that word to mark its points of departure from the acknowledged canons of criticism.

Daniel Webster.

When Henry Clay attacked a foe he gave ample warning, and if he delivered a thrust, did so with a grace that carried its own apology. But Calhoun hewed straight at the mark with terrible and vengeful energy, leaving the enemy prostrate and bleeding on the field; while Webster moved forward with

the deliberateness of the car of Juggernaut, and crushed his foe out of sight into the earth itself.

The eloquence of Edward Everett was polished steel. He was representative of a class of orators which belongs distinctly to the nineteenth century. Lecturer, rather than political debater, he stands apart from his contemporaries as the exponent of occasional address. That is to say, the orator of the set occasion; as when scholars meet at their *alma mater* or when social clubs observe their periodical reunions. It was here that the genius of Everett was supreme. The motive of his oratory had an effect upon its form, for when entertainment and instruction are the grand objects in view there is small room for the methods and tricks of forensic debate. Everett's place, therefore, in the history of oratory is midway between the political speaker and the actor, in a field which has been most assiduously cultivated in this country during the last sixty years. A scholar by inheritance and training, Everett brought to bear upon the subject under discussion the results of marvellous erudition and study. Every word and phrase was wrought out in the forge of the study, in the glow of the lamp at midnight, and nothing was trusted to the inspiration of the occasion. He was without a peer in his chosen field, and close study of his work will repay the student, as it is the best possible source of inspiration in polished and artistic expression.

Edward Everett.

Peter the Hermit was an agitator, and the great preachers of the Reformation felt called upon to

uproot the existing order of things. So with Wendell Phillips. He appeared in the arena of public discussion at the most stormy period of our country's history and did yeoman service in the cause which he espoused. He stirred the mob and braved its power. He lashed those who differed from him with a whip of scorpions, and carried on the fight with relentless vehemence when the occasion for it was gone. The oratory of Phillips was polemical. He loved the contests of the forum and was never so happy as when engaged in discussion. Yet Wendell Phillips at his best, before a sympathetic audience, and upon a subject which called into play calmness of judgment rather than the passion of prejudice, represented a type of oratory never surpassed in this country. His address in Faneuil Hall and his speech upon O'Connell are among the finest oratorical productions to be found in literature.

Wendell Phillips.

Among the Congressional debaters and public speakers of our country, Charles Sumner naturally occupies an exalted place. He was a conspicuous example of the scholar in politics. Though reared in Massachusetts, and possessing its traditions of thought and public policy as a birthright, he was still a broad-minded statesman. In other times than in the stormy period before the war he might have made an enduring mark upon the history of this country as a man of judicial temperament and catholicity of conviction. He did leave behind an imperishable fame, and few orators of his time could surpass him in debate, or reach

Charles Sumner.

the heights of grandeur he attained in the public lecture and the anniversary oration.

Alexander H. Stevens.

In 1860 the State of Georgia had one representative in Congress, who deserves a place among the princes of eloquence. He was, like Calhoun, Clay, Benjamin, and Jefferson Davis, a product of the South. Yet he possessed a more logical mind than many of his contemporaries, and stood on a plane above them as a statesman. His voice was heard warning against the movement which ended in civil war. But when the die was cast he loyally followed his State into the struggle which followed. As an orator, Mr. Stevens was argumentative in style, polished in speech, and possessed of a voice the cadences of which were most pleasant to the ear. His fame suffered because his eloquence was drowned in the roar of the battlefield, but in the light of history his worth to the world and his shining abilities at the bar and in Congress have been placed in the true perspective of those times.

Henry Ward Beecher.

The selection of one preacher to stand as a representative of pulpit oratory in the United States must result in many invidious comparisons. Eloquence in the pulpit, as on the platform, has been of an exceedingly high order in this country. The many great preachers of the nineteenth century will compare favorably with the few of other ages, and there is an important sense in which pulpit oratory has had a new and vigorous development in our day. But the pastor of Plymouth Church is, after all, a typical preacher of his time. He stood between theological extremes.

For many years he gathered within sound of his voice all classes of men from the great centre of population to which he ministered, and his sermons were multiplied in print and distributed throughout the length and breadth of the land. He was, at least, the great religious instructor of the country. As an orator, also, Mr. Beecher stood high. To an imposing presence he added a silvery voice of rare compass and power, while the arrangement of his material and his methods of presentation were such as to thrill the hearer and capture his judgment. He spoke for the most part extempore, and his sermons sometimes lacked literary finish. At times he may have been led to the utterance of extravagant doctrine, and it might be possible to find theological contradiction in his published sermons. Yet his work stood the test of popularity for half a century, and could not be smothered by malice or cut down by criticism.

Turning now from the dead to the living—from past history to the present time—we find the lists full of able statesmen and eloquent public speakers. No other age of the world, perhaps, and, certainly, no other country, could assemble so many worthy of mention. In the political field names crowd each other. They are confined to no state or section. New England has its men of eloquence to take the place of those of a former day. The Middle States have theirs; the South and the West have new champions of their interests as faithful and capable as any; and the whole country is represented in Congress, on the platform, and in the

Contemporary Orators.

pulpit by speakers who have few superiors in any age of history.

It is to be remembered that the purposes and occasions for eloquence are no longer what they once were. The enemies which threaten a country like ours are not marshalling their legions on the frontier. Public discussion is not now animated by the rancor of the slavery controversy. The times are more peaceful, and eloquence adapts itself to the changes which have come to the nation and deliberative bodies. There is no call to-day for the impassioned appeals of Henry, the ponderous arguments of Webster, or the fiery invectives of Calhoun. Oratory is of a milder type, but the discerning student is not prepared to admit that public speech is decadent.

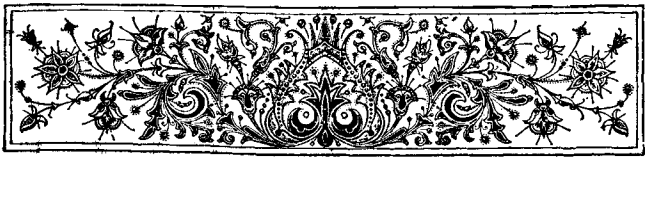
The debates which now arise in legislative halls are no less masterful than those of other periods in our country's history. Vehemence and deep feeling are not the only elements of oratory, and we must not mistake noise for eloquence or bitter invective for substantial argument.

The addresses on the Cuban crisis and the Philippine question compare favorably with those of the Mexican invasion or of the Civil War. And it was only in the last national political campaign that a single speech delivered in Chicago electrified millions. For whatever may be thought of his opinions, the results flowing from the oratory of the candidate of the Chicago Convention of 1896 have had no parallel in the history of this country.

The names of a score of public men in Washington come to mind, distinguished alike for their eloquence

and the long periods of their service. Hoar, of Massachusetts, and his younger colleague, Lodge; Aldrich, of Rhode Island; Gorman, of Maryland; Morgan, of Alabama; Vest, of Missouri; and Mills, of Texas, are names which will endure. Allison, of Iowa; Teller and Wolcott, of Colorado; Nelson, of Minnesota; and Thurston, of Nebraska are oratorical giants reared in the great West. In the House of Representatives names no less illustrious appear, and when the history of this age is written, it will be found that its political orators are no less conspicuous than its great men in other fields.

In the pulpit, almost every large city boasts of its eloquent clergymen, and the masters of demonstrative oratory are numbered by hundreds. Yet with all this wealth of natural ability we have few great speakers. We lack men, who, by the consensus of opinion, are entitled to rank in this age as Webster, Clay, and Calhoun did in theirs. Such men are bred of crises, and with the occasion will come the leader able to command its circumstances.



CHAPTER IX

VARIETIES OF DELIVERY

What Oratory Is—Divisions of the Subject—Didactic—Nash, The Citizen and the Man—Deliberative—Fox, On the Overtures of Peace—Forensic—Erskine, The Defense of Stockdale—Demonstrative—Eulogy—Everett, Eulogy on Lafayette.

IN developing the subject of this treatise it now becomes necessary to set forth more clearly what oratory is, and to specify the various forms or varieties it assumes. Webster defines oratory as the art of public speaking in an eloquent or effective manner. Another definition might be added by way of amplification, that oratory is to speak in public so as to please, arouse, convince, move, or persuade one's hearers.

What Oratory is.

Upon one point all are agreed—that oratory is speaking in public. It is evident, however, that all public speaking is not oratory, for anyone can recall instances when a man has stood before an audience, has spoken, and his discourse has fallen flat and profitless on the ear. No; the true orator accomplishes more than the mere utterance of speech. His words must have an effect upon those who hear.

He must move minds and implant or change conviction. Savonarola by the power of his eloquence changed Florence from a profligate to a religious city. When Patrick Henry closed his great speech in the Virginian Assembly, in March, 1775, "no murmur of applause followed," says his biographer, "the effect was too deep." But after a moment's stillness, several members started to their feet, and the cry, "To arms! seemed to quiver on every lip and to flash from every eye." Such is the province of oratory, and the form is nothing without the substance.

"To give to the noblest thoughts the noblest expression," says Professor Matthews, "to penetrate the souls of men, and make them feel as if they were new creatures, conscious of new powers and loftier purposes; to cause truth and justice, wisdom and virtue, patriotism and religion to appear holier and more majestic things than men had ever dreamed of before; to delight as well as to convince; to charm, to win, to arouse, to calm, to warn, to enlighten, to persuade—this is the function of the orator."

In a similar vein Henry Ward Beecher thus speaks of the art, of which he was an acknowledged master:

"Not until human nature is other than it is, will the function of the living voice, the greatest force on earth among men, cease. I advocate, therefore, in its full extent, and for every reason of humanity, of patriotism and of religion, a more thorough culture of oratory; and I define oratory to be the art of influencing conduct with the truth sent home by all the resources of the living man."

Didactic Oratory is a form of public speaking particularly intended to convey instruction, and consists chiefly in the clear presentation of the matter under discussion. The influence of the teacher has been great in all ages of the world's history, and the oratory of the school-room has, perhaps, borne more abundant fruit than that of the assembly or the bar. There have been lecturers in the great universities whose words were charged with the weight of a prophetic mission, and whose eloquence so moved the students under their instruction as to work reforms in State or Church. Such were Vacarius, Abelard, John of Salisbury, Edmund Rich, and Anselm in the universities of Oxford, Paris, and Padua, in the thirteenth century. Such was Thomas Arnold, of Rugby; Mark Hopkins, of Williams; McCosh, of Princeton; and Noah Porter, of Yale.

Didactic Oratory.

"The conflict in the inner life of antiquity was between the citizen and the man. The tribal polity made citizenhood and humanity coterminous; for outside the bounds of the Tribe the virtues had no binding force, the stranger being an enemy. The City-State, built upon the primitive tribal foundation, could not inherit the full intensity and fighting power of the tribal organization without also inheriting its narrowness. But this narrowness gave way before the combined logic of thought and of circumstance. Greece worked out the logic of thought. The great colonial movement of the eighth and seventh centuries B.C., the habits of adventure and travel, the restless curiosity that discovered a frontier of experience only to go beyond it,

Example of Didactic.

the jostle and collision of local customs, the destructive result of criticism, and the constructive search for the common elements which it made necessary,—all these manifold forces brought the Greek mind to the declaration of Socrates that he was a citizen of the world. The Stoics colored this logical and ethical movement with religion. A great number of their leaders came from the eastern parts of the Mediterranean world, where the Greek and the Oriental mingled. They brought with them the aptitude of the Oriental for feeling so deep that it outgoes his power of analysis. In their hands cosmopolitanism became a dogma. The citizen of the old school was driven off the field by the man. Humanity now bulked too large to come within any existing polity.

"Rome worked out the logic of circumstance. Completing the task of Alexander and his successors, the Empire broke down the walls between the ancient nations and turned their experience into a common enclosure. The larger part of the world lay beyond the view of the average man of the Empire,—Mesopotamia and Persia in part, India and China almost altogether. Though the men of science took note of the outlying peoples, upon the working imagination of the Mediterranean world they had very little effect. But the Empire by itself was large enough to be a world unto itself. Our imagination cannot handle an unlimited material, and whatever exceeds our stint is as if it were not. Rome threw together so great a number of widely differing peoples, compelling them to keep the peace and in some way discover their common stock, that there was no need of going outside her bounds. All the forces that could be brought into the field in the warfare between the citizen and the man were mobilized for the breaking up of localism and the widening of

sympathies. The ancient States perished: The vast World-State that pushed itself into their place was to the average, and even to the educated man, hardly so much a State as a whole world in itself. So the frontiers of humanity were pushed far out beyond the bounds of citizenhood in all its ancient forms."

Deliberative Oratory.

This is primarily the oratory of the assembly—of Parliament, of Congress, and of the religious or other conferences. Its scope is somewhat wider than that given to it by ancient writers, and includes speeches and addresses before all bodies in which men gather to deliberate and to act. Demosthenes was the great exemplar of this form of oratory, and Cicero, Pitt, Patrick Henry, and Daniel Webster were worthy successors of the great Attic orator. Indeed, the history of Deliberative Oratory is coextensive with that of civilization, beginning as it does in the examples of its use among the deities of Olympus, and the harangues of the princes in the armies around Troy.

In form Deliberative Oratory is argumentative, and its purpose is to appeal to the understanding and to move the will. The subject is usually imposed upon the speaker by events. He may have time for special preparation, but his effort at last must be more or less extempore in character. Deliberative Oratory may take on the graces of ornamentation and fancy, and may appeal to the emotions as well as to the understanding. This is the work of the speaker and in proportion as he possesses the genius and fire of true eloquence, will he succeed as a deliberative public speaker.

"It is in the nature of war to inflame animosity; to exasperate, not to soothe; to widen, not to approximate. So long as this is to be acted upon, I say, it is in vain to hope that we can have the evidence which we require. Example of Deliberative.

"The right honorable gentleman, however, thinks otherwise; and he points out four distinct possible cases, besides the re-establishment of the Bourbon family, in which he would agree to treat with the French.

"(1) 'If Bonaparte shall conduct himself so as to convince him that he has abandoned the principles which were objectionable in his predecessors, and that he will be actuated by a more moderate system.' I ask you, sir, if this is likely to be ascertained in war? It is the nature of war not to allay, but to inflame the passions; and it is not by the invective and abuse which have been thrown upon him and his government, nor by the continued irritations which war is sure to give, that the virtues of moderation and forbearance are to be nourished.

"(2) 'If, contrary to the expectations of ministers, the people of France shall show a disposition to acquiesce in the government of Bonaparte.' Does the right honorable gentleman mean to say, that because it is a usurpation on the part of the present chief, that therefore the people are not likely to acquiesce in it? I have not time, sir, to discuss the question of this usurpation, or whether it is likely to be permanent; but I certainly have not so good an opinion of the French, nor of any people, as to believe that it will be short-lived, *merely* because it was a usurpation, and because it is a system of military despotism. Cromwell was a usurper; and in many points there may be found a resemblance between him and the present Chief Consul of France. There is no doubt but that, on several occasions of his life, Cromwell's sincerity

may be questioned, particularly in his self-denying ordinance, in his affected piety, and other things; but would it not have been insanity in France and Spain to refuse to treat with him because he was a usurper or wanted candor? No, sir, these are not the maxims by which governments are actuated. They do not inquire so much into the means by which power may have been acquired, as into the fact of where the power resides. The people did acquiesce in the government of Cromwell. But it may be said that the splendor of his talents, the vigor of his administration, the high tone with which he spoke to foreign nations, the success of his arms, and the character which he gave to the English name, induced the nation to acquiesce in his usurpation; and that we must not try Bonaparte by his example. Will it be said that Bonaparte is not a man of great abilities? Will it be said that he has not, by his victories, thrown a splendor over even the violence of the Revolution, and that he does not conciliate the French people by the high and lofty tone in which he speaks to foreign nations? Are not the French, then, as likely as the English in the case of Cromwell, to acquiesce in his government? If they should do so, the right honorable gentleman may find that this possible predicament may fail him. He may find that though one power may make war, it requires two to make peace. He may find that Bonaparte was as insincere as himself in the proposition which he made; and in his turn he may come forward and say, 'I have no occasion now for concealment. It is true, that in the beginning of the year 1800, I offered to treat, not because I wished for peace, but because the people of France wished for it; and besides, my old resources being exhausted, and there being no means of carrying on the war without "a new and solid system of finance," I pre-

tended to treat, because I wished to procure the unanimous assent of the French people to this "new and solid system of finance.' Did you think I was in earnest? You were deceived. I now throw off the mask. I have gained my point, and I reject your offers with scorn.' Is it not a very possible case that he may use this language? Is it not within the right honorable gentleman's *knowledge of human nature?* But even if this should not be the case, will not the very test which you require, the acquiescence of the people of France in his government, give him an advantage-ground in the negotiation which he does not now possess? Is it quite sure, that when he finds himself safe in his seat, he will treat on the same terms as at present, and that you will get a better peace some time hence than you might reasonably hope to obtain at this moment? Will he not have one interest less to do it? And do you not overlook a favorable occasion for a chance which is exceedingly doubtful? These are the considerations which I would urge to His Majesty's ministers against the dangerous experiment of waiting for the acquiescence of the people of France.

"(3) 'If the allies of this country shall be less successful than they have every reason to expect they will be, in stirring up the people of France against Bonaparte, and in the further prosecution of the war.' And,

"(4) 'If the pressure of the war should be heavier upon us than it would be convenient for us to continue to bear.' These are the other two possible emergencies in which the right honorable gentleman would treat even with Bonaparte. Sir, I have often blamed the right honorable gentleman for being disingenuous and insincere. On the present occasion I certainly cannot charge him with any such thing. He has made to-night a most honest confession. He is open and candid. He tells Bona-

parte fairly what he has to expect. 'I mean,' says he, 'to do everything in my power to raise up the people of France against you; I have engaged a number of allies, and our combined efforts shall be used to incite insurrection and civil war in France. I will strive to murder you or to get you sent away. If I succeed, well; but if I fail, then I will treat with you. My resources being exhausted; even my "solid system of finance" having failed to supply me with the means of keeping together my allies, and of feeding the discontents I have excited in France; then you may expect to see me renounce my high tone, my attachment to the house of Bourbon, my abhorrence of your crimes, my alarm at your principles; for then I shall be ready to own that, on the balance and comparison of circumstances, there will be less danger in concluding a peace than in the continuance of war!' Is this political language for one state to hold another? And what sort of peace does the right honorable gentleman expect to receive in that case? Does he think that Bonaparte would grant to baffled insolence, to humiliated pride, to disappointment and to imbecility, the same terms which he would be ready to give now? The right honorable gentleman can not have forgotten what he said on another occasion,'

"'Potuit quæ plurima virtus
Esse, fuit. Toto certatum est corpore regni.'

"He would then have to repeat his words, but with a different application. He would have to say, 'All our efforts are vain. We have exhausted our strength. Our designs are impracticable, and we must sue to you for peace.'"

Forensic Oratory is that form of public speaking

used in debate or in legal proceedings. It is argumentative and rhetorical in its nature. This kind of oratory derived its name from the custom of pleading causes in the Roman Forum. It has to do with establishing the rights of individuals, and consists primarily in an argument before a court, in an appeal to a jury or a defense before a clerical or deliberative body. In its wider application, however, the term Forensic may be applied to any form of public debate. It will be observed that this variety of public speaking is closely allied with the Deliberative. In fact, nearly all the great deliberative orators have been also advocates or pleaders at the bar. Forensic speaking usually takes on the purely argumentative type when employed before learned judges, and falls into an appeal to the sensibilities when addressed to a jury. It is a principle widely accepted among lawyers that he who would win verdicts must cultivate persuasive speech. But in Forensic Oratory there should be perfect lucidity of statement and candor on the part of the speaker. Sophistry may amuse, but it rarely will convince judge or jury. Hence there should be as a foundation to forensic discourse a statement of all the facts in the case. The next step is to point out with unmistakable clearness the points at issue. Then comes proof, and in presenting this the whole gamut of eloquence may be run. If the foundation is firmly laid the superstructure will stand the better, and the advocate will have little to fear from the delays of the consulting table or the jury room.

Forensic Oratory.

"GENTLEMEN OF THE JURY,—Mr. Stockdale, who is brought as a criminal before you for the publication of this book, has, by employing me as his advocate, reposed what must appear to many an extraordinary degree of confidence; since, although he well knows that I am personally connected in friendship with most of those whose conduct and opinions are principally arraigned by its author, he nevertheless commits to my hands his defense and justification.

Example of Forensic.

"From a trust apparently so delicate and singular, vanity is but too apt to whisper an application to some fancied merit of one's own; but it is proper, for the honor of the English bar, that the world should know that such things happen to all of us daily, and of course; and that the defendant, without any knowledge of me, or any confidence that was personal, was only not afraid to follow up an accidental retainer from the knowledge he has of the general character of the profession. Happy indeed is it for this country that, whatever interested divisions may characterize other places of which I may have occasion to speak to-day, however the counsels of the highest departments of the state may be occasionally distracted by personal considerations, they never enter these walls to disturb the administration of justice; whatever may be our public principles or the private habits of our lives, they never cast even a shade across the path of our professional duties. If this be the characteristic even of the bar of an English court of justice, what sacred impartiality may not every man expect from its jurors and its bench.

"As, from the indulgence which the Court was yesterday pleased to give to my indisposition, this information was not proceeded on when you were attending to try it, it is probable you were not altogether inattentive

to what passed at the trial of the other indictment, prosecuted also by the House of Commons; and therefore, without a restatement of the same principles, and a similar quotation of authorities to support them, I need only remind you of the law applicable to this subject, as it was then admitted by the Attorney-General, in concession to my propositions, and confirmed by the higher authority of the Court, viz. :

"First, that every information or indictment must contain such a description of the crime that the defendant may know what crime it is which he is called upon to answer.

"Secondly, that the jury may appear to be warranted in their conclusion of guilty or not guilty.

"And lastly, that the Court may see such a precise and definite transgression upon the record, as to be able to apply the punishment which judicial discretion may dictate, or which positive law may inflict.

"It was admitted also to follow as a mere corollary from these propositions, that where an information charges a writing to be composed or published of and concerning the Commons of Great Britain, with an intent to bring that body into scandal and disgrace with the public, the author cannot be brought within the scope of such a charge unless the jury on examination and comparison of the whole matter written or published, shall be satisfied that the particular passages charged as criminal, when explained by the context, and considered as part of one entire work, were meant and intended by the author to vilify the House of Commons *as a body*, and were written of and concerning them *in Parliament assembled.*"

Demonstrative Oratory is that form of public

speaking, charged with deep feeling and earnest conviction, by which are expressed sentiments arising from the emotions rather than from logical processes of colorless reasoning. The term demonstrative as applied to oratory is neither scientific nor satisfactory. By Aristotle this form of public speech was called *epideictic*, from the word ἐπιδείκνυμι (to exhibit or display). The pertinence of the term arose in the limitation he gave to it in his classification, the epideictic oration being that which appealed to the taste or cultivation of the hearer. The word display was not applied to the speaker, but had reference to the exposition of the subject, and was confined chiefly to invective and the eulogy. In modern times the field of Demonstrative Oratory has widened, and an effort has been made to apply the term "Occasional Address" to this form of public speaking. But as a part of scientific nomenclature it is no better than the ancient one, and is susceptible of no clearer definition. The occasional address, in point of practice, runs all the way from the scientific lecture to the political speech, and the term is applied chiefly because public speakers in our day are called upon to exercise their talents occasionally. Demonstrative Oratory, however, occupies a very important place in the field of public speaking. There is special reason why it should be studied and cultivated by American scholars. Deliberative Oratory is manifestly on the decline, because parliaments and congresses have materially changed their modes of working. The committee room is crowding the

Demonstrative Oratory.

orator out. It has also been said that pulpit speaking is losing its hold upon the thought of the world. And it so happens in the trend of events that almost all the noteworthy addresses delivered in this country since the close of the Civil War have been either commemorative, eulogistic, or expository orations. For this reason, if for no other, this division of the subject claims a large share of attention. Demonstrative Oratory also affords greater scope to the speaker's powers than other forms of oral discourse, and it is pre-eminently the theme for special study by the student of to-day.

As before stated, the ancient writers divided Demonstrative Oratory into panegyric and invective, but in the modern use of this kind of public speaking the subject falls into several subdivisions as follows:

(a) The Eulogy, or praise of the individual.

(b) The Anniversary Address, commemorative of past events.

(c) The Expository Address, or the unfolding of a subject for the entertainment or instruction of the hearer.

(d) The Commencement Oration.

(e) The After-Dinner Speech.

Eulogistic Oratory is that form of public speaking devoted to personal commendation and praise of an individual. As a department of Demonstrative Oratory, the Eulogy is something more than a funeral oration. It may or may not be spoken above the remains of the deceased, but in either case it is not necessarily confined to the

Eulogistic Oratory.

specific deeds and virtues of the life that has closed. Among the Greeks the panegyric was extensively cultivated. Its subject-matter might be the splendid achievements of dead heroes, or it might voice the glory of the gods. And some instances occur in which orators proclaimed the virtues of living men in their presence. Webster makes this distinction among the words eulogy, eulogium, encomium, and panegyric.

"The idea of praise is common to all these words. The word *encomium* is used of both persons and things which are the result of human action, and denotes warm praise. *Eulogium* and *eulogy* apply only to persons, and are more studied and of greater length. A *panegyric* was originally a set speech in a full assembly of the people, and hence denotes a more formal *eulogy*, couched in terms of warm and continuous praise, especially as to personal character. We may bestow *encomiums* on any work of art, or production of genius, without reference to the performer; we bestow *eulogies*, or pronounce a *eulogium*, upon some individual distinguished for his merit or public services; we pronounce a *panegyric* before an assemby gathered for the occasion."

In France this form of public speaking has acquired a noteworthy position. It came into vogue in the reign of Louis XIV., and the preachers of that day were accustomed to pronounce an elaborate funeral oration at the obsequies of the members of the court. The custom has been continued by the French Academy. When one of its number dies, another is chosen to speak of him, and the address

after being delivered is preserved in the archives of that institution.

In this country the eulogy is common, and no important man, in any department of effort, passes away without a suitable address of this sort. Legislative bodies, scientific societies, and religious associations perform this service over the members when they die. The eulogy may be in form a biographical sketch of the dead, or, as is usual, it may seek to portray the main points of his career; to give high praise to his achievements, and to draw lessons of value and inspiration from his life. A proverb says, "Speak only good of the dead," and the average eulogy, wisely or unwisely, conforms strictly with this requirement. Edward Everett's oration on Lafayette and that of George William Curtis on Wendell Phillips rank among the best eulogies that have been delivered in this country.

Example of Eulogy.

"There have been those who have denied to Lafayette the name of a great man. What is greatness? Does goodness belong to greatness, and make an essential part of it? If it does, who, I would ask, of all the prominent names in history, has run through such a career with so little reproach justly or unjustly bestowed? Are military courage and conduct the measure of greatness? Lafayette was intrusted by Washington with all kinds of service,—the laborious and complicated, which required skill and patience; the perilous, that demanded nerve; and we see him performing all with entire success and brilliant reputation. Is the readiness to meet vast responsibilities a proof of greatness? The memoirs of Mr. Jefferson show us that

there was a moment in 1789, when Lafayette took upon himself, as the head of the military force, the entire responsibility of laying down the basis of the Revolution. Is the cool and brave administration of gigantic power a mark of greatness? In all the whirlwind of the Revolution, and when, as commander-in-chief of the National Guard, an organized force of three millions of men, who, for any popular purpose, needed but a word, a look, to put them in motion, we behold him ever calm, collected, disinterested; as free from affectation as selfishness; clothed not less with humility than with power. Is the voluntary return, in advancing years, to the direction of affairs, at a moment like that, when, in 1815, the ponderous machinery of the French Empire was flying asunder,—stunning, rending, crushing thousands on every side,—a mark of greatness? Lastly, is it any proof of greatness to be able, at the age of seventy-three, to take the lead in a successful and bloodless revolution; to change the dynasty; to organize, exercise, and abdicate a military command of three and a half millions of men; to take up, to perform, and lay down the most momentous, delicate, and perilous duties, without passion, without hurry, without selfishness? Is it great to disregard the bribes of titles, office, money; to live, to labor, and suffer for great public ends alone; to adhere to principle under all circumstances; to stand before Europe and America conspicuous, for sixty years, in the most responsible stations, the acknowledged admiration of all men?

"There is not, throughout the world, a friend of liberty who has not dropped his head when he has heard that Lafayette is no more. Poland, Italy, Greece, Spain, Ireland, the South American Republics—every country where man is struggling to recover his birthright—have

lost a benefactor, a patron, in Lafayette. And what was it, fellow-citizens, which gave to our Lafayette his spotless fame? The love of liberty. What has consecrated his memory in the hearts of good men? The love of liberty. What nerved his youthful arm with strength, and inspired him, in the morning of his days, with sagacity and counsel? The living love of liberty. To what did he sacrifice power, and rank, and country, and freedom itself? To the horror of licentiousness,—to the sanctity of plighted faith,—to the love of liberty protected by law. Thus the great principle of your Revolutionary fathers, and of your Pilgrim sires, was the rule of his life—*the love of liberty protected by law.*"

CHAPTER X

VARIETIES OF DELIVERY (*Concluded*)

Anniversary Address—Lincoln, The Gettysburg Address—Expository Address—Cardinal Newman, True Education—Commencement Oration—Adams, The Study and Teaching of History—After-Dinner Speaking—Grady, The New South—Homiletic Oratory.

ANNIVERSARY Address is that form of public speaking which may be either a descriptive and reminiscent or a didactic discourse, of which the occasion forms the subject of the introduction.

The Anniversary Address.

It is closely akin to the eulogy, and is called forth upon an occasion commemorative of some important event in history. For many years it has been customary throughout the United States for the people to assemble on Independence Day, and listen to an oration reviving the memories of that day in 1776, when the Colonies threw off the yoke of oppression and proclaimed themselves free. During the last thirty years the Anniversary Address has often been employed in celebrating the centenaries of important events. Some of the best specimens of American oratory

have been produced on these occasions. At the two-hundredth anniversary of the landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, Daniel Webster was the orator. When called upon to speak he made brief reference to the occasion which had brought the people together, and then launched upon an elaborate and philosophical survey of what the Anglo-Saxon race had achieved in the New World. Its history was traced from the landing at Plymouth to the day on which he spoke, and few oratorical efforts have merited the distinction universally accorded to that address. Five years later Mr. Webster delivered a similar oration at the laying of the corner-stone of Bunker Hill Monument, and this was the example set for all subsequent speeches of this class. Lincoln's Gettysburg Address, which follows, is a good example of this class of oration.

Example of Anniversary Address.

"Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth upon this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this. But in a larger sense we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here have consecrated it far above our power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor

long remember, what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us, that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion ; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain ; that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth."

The Expository Address.

Expository Address is that form of public speaking which is used to explain, illustrate, define, or interpret. It comes nearer to Aristotle's notion of the oratory of display than the two varieties of delivery mentioned above. The central idea in this form of public speech is to expound a subject for the entertainment and enlightenment of the audience assembled. The lyceum lecture is an expository address, as are the many lectures arranged for in the interest of church or charitable funds. The speaker chooses his theme and develops it beforehand to suit his tastes and ideas. In its delivery his purpose is, by instruction and appeal, to bring the audience into accord and sympathy with his views. Such oratory has its value, but the expository speaker is soon forgotten in a fresh theme and an equally eloquent voice.

Edward Everett shone particularly in this field. His style of oratory was specially suited to it, and the cultured audiences which gathered to hear him

in all the principal cities of our country had a rare appreciation for his intellectual and elocutionary powers. The distinction was accorded to him alone among New England orators of being patiently listened to and enthusiastically applauded in the South. It was because he avoided the "burning question of the hour" and appealed to the people of Kentucky and Tennessee by discoursing upon themes which pleased and did not irritate them.

The Expository Address is one of the most popular forms of modern oratory. Its purpose is to lift the minds of men and women above the strifes and turmoil of the hour into a higher and purer intellectual atmosphere. It is an undertaking to be accomplished by art alone, and it is the province of the orator to work that spell upon the audience before which he appears. That it requires infinite skill and pains is apparent, and oratory is not dead when it can achieve the high ideal of the Expository Address.

The selection is by Cardinal Newman.

Example of Expository Address.

"Nor indeed am I supposing that there is any great danger, at least in this day, of over-education; the danger is on the other side. I will tell you, gentlemen, what has been the practical error of the last twenty years,—not to load the memory of the student with a mass of undigested knowledge, but to force upon him so much that he has rejected all. It has been the error of distracting and enfeebling the mind by an unmeaning profusion of subjects, of implying that a smattering in a dozen branches of study is not shallowness, which it really is, but enlargement, which it is not;

of considering an acquaintance with the learned names of things and persons, and the possession of clever duodecimos, and attendance on eloquent lectures, and membership with scientific institutions, and the sight of the experiments of a platform and the specimens of a museum, that all this was not dissipation of mind, but progress. All things now are to be learned at once, not first one thing, then another; not one well, but many badly. Learning is to be without exertion, without attention, without toil; without grounding, without advance, without finishing. There is to be nothing individual in it; and this, forsooth, is the wonder of the age. What the steam-engine does with matter, the printing-press is to do with mind; it is to act mechanically, and the population is to be passively, almost unconsciously, enlightened, by the mere multiplication and dissemination of volumes. Whether it be the schoolboy, or the schoolgirl, or the youth at college, or the mechanic in the town, or the politician in the senate, all have been the victims in one way or other of this most preposterous and pernicious of delusions. . . .

". . . A thorough knowledge of one science and a superficial acquaintance with many, are not the same thing; a smattering of a hundred things or a memory for detail, is not a philosophical or comprehensive view. Recreations are not education; accomplishments are not education. Do not say, the people must be educated, when, after all, you only mean amused, refreshed, soothed, put into good spirits and good humor, or kept from vicious excesses. I do not say that such amusements, such occupations of mind, are not a great gain; but they are not education. You may as well call drawing and fencing education, as a general knowledge of botany or conchology. Stuffing birds or playing stringed instru-

ments is an elegant pastime, and a resource to the idle, but it is not education ; it does not form or cultivate the intellect. Education is a high word ; it is the preparation for knowledge, and it is the imparting of knowledge in proportion to that preparation. We require intellectual eyes to know withal, as bodily eyes for sight. We need both objects and organs intellectual; we cannot gain them in our sleep, or by haphazard. The best telescope does not dispense with eyes ; the printing-press or the lecture-room will assist us greatly, but we must be true to ourselves, we must be parties in the work. A university is, according to the usual designation, an alma mater, knowing her children one by one, not a foundry or a mint, or a treadmill."

The Commencement Oration.

Commencement Address is that form of public speaking which differs in occasion and in place of delivery, but not in structure and sentiment, from the Anniversary Address. The multiplication of institutions of learning in the United States, and the custom of having an address at the end of the scholastic year, has given to the Commencement Oration unusual prominence. In form it does not differ materially from the Expository Address, except that the subject chosen may refer to educational matters, and that the audience is chiefly composed of educated young men or women. The occasion is accepted by men of prominence and ability as affording special opportunity for the presentation of their noblest thoughts. Their words fall into the receptive mind of youth, and the hope of having their ideas cherished and acted upon is visibly enhanced. As a consequence

the Commencement Oration is a production in which the speaker takes pride, and upon which he exhausts his mental energy in preparation, and his physical powers in the delivery.

The following is from one of the speeches of Herbert B. Adams:

Example of Commencement Oration.

"America is not untried in war, whether on land or sea. We have twice conquered England, now the greatest empire the world has seen. But better than all victories by force of arms or ships are the victories of England and America over themselves. Our Mother Country and these United Colonies have subdued all bitterness and jealousy and are now working peacefully and harmoniously for a higher civilization. Let us all, men of the North and men of the South, hold strongly together. Let us, like George Washington, while great in war, be even greater in peace. Let college men and all good citizens endeavor to realize Washington's grand idea, that of a national university in the federal city which bears his name. The establishment of a great institution of learning midway between the North and the South, where young men from both sections of our common country could meet and mingle,—this was the favorite project of Washington's old age. He derived this noble thought from old William and Mary College, of which he was chancellor before he became President of these United States. Here in this old capital of Virginia originated the first civil academy, the first law school in America. Here was educated Thomas Jefferson, the Father of the University of Virginia.

"Was it not a remarkable fact that the two great rivers of Virginia, the James and the Potomac, should have

been the principal economic forces in the development of Washington's educational hopes for Virginia and his country? His stock in the James River Navigation Company became a permanent source of revenue for Washington College, now Washington and Lee University, where recently President Wilson has consciously and avowedly revived the Old Williamsburg ideal of a combined school of law and history, politics and economics. Washington's stock in the Potomac Navigation Company became the historic source for his larger idea of a national university. The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, which succeeded the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal and the Potomac Company as a trade-route between the West and the Atlantic seaboard, proved for many years the chief source of revenue for the Johns Hopkins University, itself national in spirit, though not in name.

"Whatever may be the fate of corporations, Washington's grand idea of a truly national university will live on in Baltimore, and find ultimately even larger realizations in the nation's capital. To this end all existing colleges and universities will in spite of themselves contribute. State interests and sectarian prejudice will yield to larger and richer opportunities for the study of history, politics, economics, social science, and diplomacy,—opportunities already existing in the city of Washington. A national government which expends over three million dollars per annum for scientific purposes is, consciously or unconsciously, promoting George Washington's noble project for the highest education of the American people. Private and ill-considered schemes may fail, but state and national ideas in university education must ultimately combine and prevail in this federal republic. 'He that believeth doth not make haste.'

"The College of William and Mary, of George Wash-

ington, Thomas Jefferson, Edmund Randolph, and John Marshall, and of a long line of Virginia and Southern statesmen, should have no fears for its own future. Her graduate teachers are now abroad in fifty counties of Virginia. Popular education is salvation for democracy. Colleges and universities will train better and better leaders as society moves forward. The forces that make for higher education are stronger than those which obstruct it."

After-dinner Speaking.

Post-prandial speaking is now so common that any man of prominence or position will be very fortunate if he is not called upon to make after-dinner remarks. There are obvious drawbacks connected with the after-dinner speech. In the first place, it violates the canon of good elocution to speak within one hour after eating. Then, too, the pleasures of the feast are apt to be interfered with by the fear of the speech which is to follow. Moreover, it frequently happens that the speaker must address an indifferent audience. At best it is a trying situation, and the results to be achieved are not at all commensurate with the trouble of preparation and the annoyance of delivery.

But the after-dinner speech is apparently a fixture in our country, and the speaker must make the most of a bad situation. An address to be delivered on such an occasion should have a few definite characteristics. First, it should be brief. Whatever points it makes must glitter like steel and sparkle like the diamond. Wit is also essential, and pathos and fancy should have a place in the scheme. In short, the after-dinner speech, requiring ten minutes for

delivery, needs as careful preparation as the expository address that is designed to occupy an hour in utterance. Nothing should be left to the inspiration of the moment, for the chances are that the banquet room will not have a peg upon which to hang an idea. Not only should the theme be discreetly chosen, but it should be thought out and elaborated until every sentence is clear, and the turn of every word provided for. Let nothing be neglected. Even the anecdotes to be related should be put into the choicest language, and when the speaker begins he should have about him the self-consciousness of ready utterance.

The following example is a speech by Henry W. Grady:

Example of After-Dinner Address.

"'There was a South of slavery and secession—that South is dead. There is a South of union and freedom —that South, thank God, is living, breathing, growing every hour.' These words, delivered from the immortal lips of Benjamin H. Hill, at Tammany Hall, in 1886, true then, and truer now, I shall make my text to-night.

"Mr. President and Gentlemen: Let me express to you my appreciation of the kindness by which I am permitted to address you. I make this abrupt acknowledgment advisedly, for I feel that if, when I raised my provincial voice in this ancient and august presence, I could find courage for no more than the opening sentence, it would be well if, in that sentence, I had met in a rough sense my obligation as a guest, and had perished, so to speak, with courtesy on my lips and grace in my heart. . . . In speaking to the toast with which

you have honored me, I accept the term, 'The New South,' as in no sense disparaging to the old. Dear to me, sir, is the home of my childhood, and the traditions of my people. I would not, if I could, dim the glory they won in peace and war, or by word or deed take aught from the splendor and grace of their civilization, never equaled, and perhaps never to be equaled in its chivalric strength and grace. There is a New South, not through protest against the old, but because of new conditions, new adjustments, and, if you please, new ideas and aspirations. It is to this that I address myself, and to the consideration of which I hasten, lest it become the Old South before I get to it. Age does not endow all things with strength and virtue, nor are all new things to be despised. The shoemaker who put over his door, 'John Smith's shop, founded 1760,' was more than matched by his young rival across the street who hung out this sign: 'Bill Jones. Established 1886. No old stock kept in this shop.'

"Dr. Talmage has drawn for you, with a master hand, the picture of your returning armies. He has told you how, in the pomp and circumstance of war, they came back to you, marching with proud and victorious tread, reading their glory in a nation's eyes! Will you bear with me while I tell you of another army that sought its home at the close of the late war? An army that marched home in defeat and not in victory—in pathos, and not in splendor, but in glory that equaled yours, and to hearts as loving as ever welcomed heroes home. Let me picture to you the footsore Confederate soldier, as, buttoning up in his faded gray jacket the parole which was to bear testimony to his children of his fidelity and faith, he turned his face southward from Appomattox in April, 1865. Think of him as ragged, half-starved,

heavy-hearted, enfeebled by want and wounds; having fought to exhaustion, he surrenders his gun, wrings the hands of his comrades in silence, and, lifting his tear-stained and pallid face for the last time to the graves that dot the old Virginia hills, pulls his gray cap over his brow and begins the slow and painful journey. What does he find?—let me ask you who went to your homes eager to find, in the welcome you had justly earned, full payment for four years' sacrifice—what does he find when, having followed the battle-stained cross against overwhelming odds, dreading death not half so much as surrender, he reaches the home he left so prosperous and beautiful? He finds his house in ruins, his farm devastated, his slaves free, his stock killed, his barn empty, his trade destroyed, his money worthless; his social system, feudal in its magnificence, swept away; his people without law or legal status; his comrades slain, and the burdens of others heavy on his shoulders. Crushed by defeat, his very traditions gone; without money, credit, employment, material training; and besides all this, confronted with the gravest problem that ever met human intelligence—the establishing of a status for the vast body of his liberated slaves.

"What does he do—this hero in gray, with a heart of gold? Does he sit down in sullenness and despair? Not for a day. Surely God, who had stripped him of his prosperity, inspired him in his adversity. As ruin was never before so overwhelming, never was restoration swifter. The soldier stepped from the trenches into the furrow; horses that had charged Federal guns marched before the plow, and the fields that ran red with human blood in April were green with the harvest in June; women reared in luxury cut up their dresses and made breeches for their husbands, and with a patience and

heroism that fit women always as a garment, gave their hands to work. There was little bitterness in all this. Cheerfulness and frankness prevailed. 'Bill Arp' struck the keynote when he said: 'Well, I killed as many of them as they did of me, and now I am going to work.' Or the soldier returning home after defeat, and roasting some corn on the roadside, who made the remark to his comrades: 'You may leave the South if you want to, but I am going to Sandersville, kiss my wife and raise a crop, and if the Yankees fool with me any more I will whip 'em again.' I want to say to General Sherman—who is considered an able man in our parts, though some people think he is kind of careless about fire—that from the ashes he left us in 1864 we have raised a brave and beautiful city; that somehow or other we have caught the sunshine in the bricks and mortar of our homes, and have builded therein not one ignoble prejudice or memory.

"But in all this what have we accomplished? What is the sum of our work? We have found out that in the general summary the free negro counts more than he did as a slave. We have planted the schoolhouse on the hilltop, and made it free to black and white. We have sowed towns and cities in the place of theories, and put business above politics. We have learned that the $400,000,000 annually received from our cotton crop will make us rich, when the supplies that make it are home-raised. We have reduced the commercial rate of interest from twenty-four to four per cent., and are floating four per cent. bonds. We have learned that one Northern immigrant is worth fifty foreigners, and have smoothed the path to the southward, wiped out the place where Mason and Dixon's line used to be, and hung out our latchstring to you and yours.

"We have reached the point that marks perfect harmony in every household, when the husband confesses that the pies which his wife cooks are as good as those his mother used to bake; and we admit that the sun shines as brightly and the moon as softly as it did 'before the war.' We have established thrift in the city and country. We have fallen in love with work. We have restored comforts to homes from which culture and elegance never departed. We have let economy take root and spread among us as rank as the crab grass which sprung from Sherman's cavalry camps, until we are ready to lay odds on the Georgia Yankee, as he manufactures relics of the battle-field in a one-story shanty and squeezes pure olive-oil out of his cotton-seed, against any downeaster that ever swapped wooden nutmegs for flannel sausages in the valley of Vermont.

"Above all, we know that we have achieved in these 'piping times of peace,' a fuller independence for the South than that which our fathers sought to win in the forum by their eloquence, or compel on the field by their swords.

"It is a rare privilege, sir, to have had a part, however humble, in this work. Never was nobler duty confided to human hands than the uplifting and upbuilding of the prostrate and bleeding South, misguided, perhaps, but beautiful in her suffering, and honest, brave, and generous always. In the record of her social, industrial, and political restoration we await with confidence the verdict of the world. . . .

"The old South rested everything on slavery and agriculture, unconscious that these could neither give nor maintain healthy growth. The new South presents a perfect Democracy, the oligarchs leading in the popular movement—a social system compact and closely knitted,

less splendid on the surface but stronger at the core ; a hundred farms for every plantation, fifty homes for every palace, and a diversified industry that meets the complex needs of this complex age.

"The new South is enamored of her new work. Her soul is stirred with the breath of a new life. The light of a grander day is falling fair on her face. She is thrilling with the consciousness of a growing power and prosperity. As she stands upright, full-statured and equal among the people of the earth, breathing the keen air and looking out upon the expanding horizon, she understands that her emancipation came because in the inscrutable wisdom of God her honest purpose was crossed and her brave armies were beaten.

"This is said in no spirit of time-serving or apology. The South has nothing for which to apologize. She believes that the late struggle between the States was war and not rebellion, revolution and not conspiracy, and that her convictions were as honest as yours. I should be unjust to the dauntless spirit of the South and to my own convictions if I did not make this plain in this presence. The South has nothing to take back. In my native town of Athens is a monument that crowns its central hills—a plain, white shaft. Deep cut in its shining side is a name dear to me above the names of men, that of a brave and simple man who died in a brave and simple faith. Not for all the glories of New England—from Plymouth Rock all the way—would I exchange the heritage he left me in his soldier's death. To the feet of that shaft I shall send my children's children to reverence him who ennobled their name with his heroic blood. But, sir, speaking from the shadow of that memory, which I honor as I do nothing else on earth, I say that the cause in which he suffered and for

which he gave his life was adjudged by higher and fuller wisdom than his or mine, and I am glad that the omniscient God held the balance of battle in His Almighty hand, and that human slavery was swept forever from American soil—the American Union saved from the wreck of war.

"This message, Mr. President, comes to you from consecrated ground. Every foot of the soil about the city in which I live is sacred as a battle-ground of the Republic. Every hill that invests it is hallowed to you by the blood of your brothers who died for your victory, and doubly hallowed to us by the blood of those who died hopeless, but undaunted, in defeat—sacred soil to all of us, rich with memories that make us purer and stronger and better, silent but stanch witnesses in its red desolation of the matchless valor of American hearts and the deathless glory of American arms—speaking an eloquent witness, in its white peace and prosperity, to the indissoluble union of American States and the imperishable brotherhood of the American people.

"Now, what answer has New England to this message? Will she permit the prejudice of war to remain in the hearts of the conquerors, when it has died in the hearts of the conquered? Will she transmit this prejudice to the next generation, that in their hearts, which never felt the generous ardor of conflict, it may perpetuate itself? Will she withhold, save in strained courtesy, the hand which, straight from his soldier's heart, Grant offered to Lee at Appomattox? Will she make the vision of a restored and happy people, which gathered above the couch of your dying captain, filling his heart with grace, touching his lips with praise and glorifying his path to the grave; will she make this vision, on which the last sigh of his expiring soul breathed a bene-

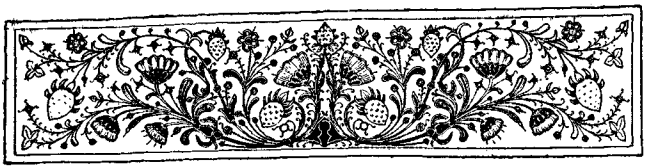
diction, a cheat and a delusion? If she does, the South, never abject in asking for comradeship, must accept with dignity its refusal; but if she does not—if she accepts with frankness and sincerity this message of good will and friendship, then will the prophecy of Webster, delivered in this very Society forty years ago, amid tremendous applause, be verified in its fullest and final sense, when he said: 'Standing hand to hand and clasping hands, we should remain united as we have for sixty years, citizens of the same country, members of the same government, united all, united now, and united forever. There have been difficulties, contentions, and controversies, but I tell you that in my judgment

> 'Those opposed eyes,
> Which, like the meteors of a troubled heaven,
> All of one nature, of one substance bred,
> Did lately meet in th' intestine shock,
> Shall now, in mutual, well-beseeming ranks
> March all one way.'"

Homiletic Oratory.

Homiletic Oratory is that form of public speaking used in the pulpit. It is a class by itself, in that it may contain all other forms of oratory, and utilize them for the delivery of moral and religious sentiments. Pulpit address is differentiated from other kinds of public speaking by place of delivery rather than by the form of discourse. A sermon may be as didactic in the statement of doctrinal truth as any lecture in the schools. It may be demonstrative in form or expository in method, it may be spoken in eulogy over the dead; and yet it is a pulpit oration because it is delivered

in a church. But the eloquence of the pulpit has had a great influence in moulding the thought of the world, and deserves a separate place in our classification. Some of the most celebrated orators in history have been preachers, and at the present day the pulpit invites men of talent, learning, and eloquence to the teaching of religious truths.



CHAPTER XI

ART OF CONVERSATION

Conversation and Oratory—A Lost Art—Preliminary to Public Speaking—Of Universal Utility—The Conversational Voice—Acquiring a Vocabulary—Style—Materials—Rules for Conversation—Illustrative Examples.

CONVERSATION is the fundamental element of oratory. From it as a starting point all varieties of eloquence proceed; for public speech is only a modification of this simple form of expression.

Conversation and Oratory.

The orator makes use of the same organs of speech, of similar quality and variety of tone, of identical gestures and words on the platform and in the drawing-room. Conversation merges by insensible gradations into true eloquence, the one being the perfected development of the other. The difference is in degree rather than kind. It is important, therefore, to consider this phase of our subject not only in its relation to public speaking, but in its manifold bearing on the practical affairs of life.

The issue has been raised that conversation is in its decline, and is no longer cultivated as a social

accomplishment. Newspapers, it is maintained, do the work which free social intercourse once performed. Men and women, it is alleged, are falling into a habit of reticence as they run through morning and evening editions, gleaning the news and forming their opinions as they read. It may be true that ordinary conversation between casual acquaintances in the street does not proceed on a very high plane. It may be true also that the absorbing interests of the day tend to make men silent and absent-minded, but few observant students are prepared to admit that any lowering of the conversational standard among the cultivated class has taken place. The chief trouble lies in drawing a comparison between the ideal conversations of literature and the practical ones of everyday life.

Conversation a Lost Art.

An eminent teacher of elocution has said that the art of natural oratory goes hand in hand with conversation. This conception of public speaking contemplates the social circle as the training school for the platform. In other words, the best way to become a good speaker is to be an adept in the art of conversation. Many public speakers "talk over" their addresses with some friend by way of preparation. This method tends to clearness of statement and logical analysis, and is to be recommended as a working plan. If the "friend" is something of a controversialist and able to criticise and oppose the points made, so much the better. In such a case the debate in the study might have the best possible effect upon the finished work on the rostrum. Indeed, this conver-

Preliminary to Public Speaking.

sational preparation for public speaking is a valuable adjunct to writing or reflection, inasmuch as it serves the direct purpose of sharpening the thought and giving facility and force to expression.

I have said that conversation must be regarded as the practical training school of the public speaker. Here he practises his art on an audience of one or two. At the table, in the social gathering, walking with a friend in the street, talk may take any direction he chooses to give it, and may become as animated and eloquent as the limits of his powers will allow. He is constantly exercising himself in the use of words, in the cultivation of style, and in the development of forceful reasoning and persuasion. No orator can hope to win the throng on the rostrum, who is unable to cause the little circle of friends to think as he thinks, and to follow his intellectual lead. As a means to an end, the public speaker should endeavor at all times to improve his gifts in conversation, striving to enlarge his vocabulary, to polish his diction, and to acquire power in the presentation and exposition of a great variety of topics.

Of Universal Utility.

But the public speaker is not the only man to whom the art of conversation is valuable. In all walks of life it has its worth and its influence. It is the touchstone by which is tried the seeker for entrance into the circle of society or business. He who is possessed of a ready, fluent, easy, and correct diction is immeasurably advantaged over his fellow who lacks these qualifications. To talk well is one of the prime requisites of success in every avocation.

The tones of voice and qualities of expression rightly usable in ordinary conversation differ widely from those necessary for oratorical effect. In the former, softness is an attribute demanded by the necessities of the situation and by good taste. A raucous or shrill voice is wearying and distasteful. Modulation should be carefully watched and practised, until a whisper can be made as effective as a cry. High pitch is never demanded in conversation, unless in exciting description, and even then must be carefully guarded so that it shall not transgress the bounds of the occasion.

The Conversational Voice.

Read the following example in high pitch and loud voice, then in natural tones, and observe the fitness of the latter.

"Walking through the park at Kuopio one day with the Baroness Michaeloff, my attention was arrested by the extraordinary number of ant hills we passed.

Illustration.

"'They are used for baths,' she explained.

"'For what?' I asked, thinking that I could not have heard aright.

"'For baths,' she repeated. 'Formerly the "muurahainen" (ant-heap baths) were quite commonly employed as a cure for rheumatism and many other ailments; but now, I fancy, it is only the peasants who take them, or very old folks, perhaps.'

"'Can an ant bath be had here?'

"'Certainly; but surely you do n't think of taking one?'

"'Indeed, I do, though. I am trying all the baths of

Finland, and an ant-heap bath must not be omitted, if it is possible to have such a thing.'

"The kindly lady laughed heartily as she said:

"'Is it possible that you wish to take one of these baths?'

"'Certainly. It will be a pleasure,' I replied, and accordingly we then and there marched off to the bath-house to see how my desire might best be accomplished."

Acquiring a Vocabulary.

Facility in the use of words is as necessary in conversation as in composition. Always use the best language at your command, and constantly study to improve your vocabulary. Be especially careful to thoroughly understand the meaning of a word before you make use of it. The shades of meaning are at times very subtle, and ambiguity is to be shunned. It is well to enlarge and perfect your vocabulary by study of the dictionary. This should be done by noting any words whose meaning is doubtful, or unknown, finding their meaning, and taking occasion to introduce them into your conversation until they have become familiar to you.

Style in Conversation.

Next to the importance of precision and choice in the use of words, is the style of composition appropriate to conversation. Short sentences and direct statements are the ideal forms of expression. What you say is not for print or reading. Its effect is immediate and generally evanescent. Hence the simplest forms of statement are the best. Speak softly, use appropriate words, and cultivate a terse, plain form of address.

Conversation is usually the description of some

object seen, or the narration of something that has occurred. Both depend for effect upon accuracy of information and the power of imparting what one has observed or heard. To this end the power of seeing things as they are and of describing them as seen needs to be developed. Avoid exaggeration and learn to speak the exact truth. A person may employ real oratorical talent in depicting his experiences or in describing what he has seen without effort to appear eloquent or profound, remembering always that conversation, considered from the elocutionary standpoint, is only a stepping-stone to effective public speaking.

Brevity and directness of statement in conversation are well illustrated in the following example.

"A painful silence followed his withdrawal, then the Coroner spoke to the jury:

"'Perhaps Mr. Van Burnam can explain how he came to visit his father's house at four o'clock in the morning on that memorable night, when, according to his latest testimony, he left his wife there at twelve. We will give him the opportunity.' **Illustration of Style.**

"'There is no use,' began the young man from the place where he sat. But gathering courage even while speaking, he came rapidly forward, and facing Coroner and jury once more, said with a false kind of energy that imposed upon no one:

"'I can explain this fact, but I doubt if you will accept my explanation. I was at my father's house at that hour, but not in it. My restlessness drove me back to my wife, but not finding the keys in my pocket, I came down the stoop again and went away.'

"'Ah, I see now why you prevaricated this morning in regard to the time when you missed those keys.'

"'I know that my testimony is full of contradictions.'

"'You feared to have it known that you were on the stoop of your father's house for the second time that night?'

"'Naturally, in face of the suspicion I perceived everywhere about me.'

"'And this time you did not go in?'

"'No.'

"'Nor ring the bell?'

"'No.'

"'Why not, if you left your wife within, alive and well?'

"'I did not wish to disturb her. My purpose was not strong enough to surmount the least difficulty. I was easily deterred from going where I had little wish to be.'

"'So that you merely went up the stoop and down again at the time Mr. Stone saw you?'

"'Yes; and if he had passed a minute sooner he would have seen this—seen me go up, I mean, as well as seen me come down. I did not linger long in the doorway.'

"'But you did linger there a moment?'

"'Yes; long enough to hunt for the keys and get over my astonishment at not finding them.'

"'Did you notice Mr. Stone going by on Twenty-first Street?'

"'No.'

"'Was it as light as Mr. Stone has said?'

"'Yes, it was light.'

"'And you did not notice him?'

"'No.'

"'Yet you must have followed very closely behind him?'

'Not necessarily. I went by the way of Twentieth Street, sir. Why, I do not know, for my rooms are uptown. I do not know why I did half the things I did that night.'"

The subject of conversation is often suggested by the events of the day, the occurrences in near or remote places, or the most trivial happening of the moment. But it often happens that guest or host, visitor or visited, may choose the subject of talk and give to social intercourse a turn away from the trivialities of the hour. It is then that serious conversation on serious topics begins, and story-telling or imparting useful information is in order. The good story-teller is generally in demand in the social circle.

The Materials of Conversation.

To become a pleasing conversationalist it is necessary to cultivate the mind as well as the vocal organs. The conversationalist or the public speaker must be a thinker, if he would be a bright exponent of his art. "Nobody," said Phillips Brooks, "can truly stand as an utterer before the world, unless he be profoundly living and earnestly thinking." And he said on another occasion that, "as time goes on, men will more and more insist that they must have something good to say." This is the secret of brilliant conversation—"something good to say." Let the student fill his mind with knowledge, with noble sentiments, and with the garnered treasures of the library and the study; thus prepared let him go forth to talk in private or in public on themes which will delight those who fall under the spell of his eloquent speech.

"'Who is she?'

"'I know not,—a king's daughter, or something of that sort.'

Illustration.

"'Thou dost rouse my curiosity, Vinicius.'

"'But if thou wish to listen, I will satisfy thy curiosity straightway. Her story is not a long one. Thou art acquainted, personally, with Vannius, king of the Suevi, who, expelled from his country, spent a long time here in Rome, and became even famous for his skilful play with dice, and his good driving of chariots. Drusus put him on the throne again. Vannius, who was really a strong man, ruled well at first, and warred with success; afterward, however, he began to skin not only his neighbors, but his own Suevi, too much. Thereupon Vangio and Sido, two sister's sons of his, and the sons of Vibilius, king of the Hermunduri, determined to force him to Rome again—to try his luck there at dice.'

"'I remember; that is of recent Claudian times.'

"'Yes! War broke out. Vannius summoned to his aid the Yazygi; his dear nephews called in the Lygians, who, hearing of the riches of Vannius, and enticed by the hope of booty, came in such numbers that Cæsar himself, Claudius, began to fear for the safety of the boundary. Claudius did not wish to interfere in a war among barbarians, but he wrote to Atelius Hister, who commanded the legions of the Danube, to turn a watchful eye on the course of the war, and not permit them to disturb our peace. Hister required, then, of the Lygians a promise not to cross the boundary; to this they not only agreed, but gave hostages, among whom were the wife and daughter of their leader. It is known to thee that barbarians take their wives and children to war with them. My Lygia is the daughter of that leader.'

"'Whence dost thou know all this?'

"'Aulus Plautius told it himself. The Lygians did not cross the boundary, indeed; but barbarians come and go like a tempest. So did the Lygians vanish with their wild-ox horns on their heads. They killed Vannius's Suevi and Yazygi; but their own king fell. They disappeared with their booty then, and the hostages remained in Hister's hands. The mother died soon after, and Hister, not knowing what to do with the daughter, sent her to Pomponius, the governor of all Germany. He, at the close of the war with the Catti, returned to Rome, where Claudius, as is known to thee, permitted him to have a triumph. The maiden on that occasion walked after the car of the conqueror; but, at the end of the solemnity,—since hostages cannot be considered captives, and since Pomponius did not know what to do with her definitely—he gave her to his sister, Pomponia Græcina, the wife of Plautius. In that house, where all are virtuous, that maiden grew up as virtuous as Græcina herself, and so beautiful that even Poppæa, if near her, would seem like an autumn fig near an apple of the Hesperides.'"

In the developing of correct habits in conversation, the following rules, adapted from I. W. Shoemaker, will be found useful. **Rules for Conversation.**

(*a*) The conversational voice should be natural, pure, and full.

(*b*) Articulation should be distinct.

(*c*) Expression should be plain and direct and adapted to the sentiment.

(*d*) Watch your own conversation, and correct defects of voice and articulation.

(*e*) Correct in conversation all known faults of expression.

(*f*) Allow no occasion to be so unimportant as to admit of loose or trivial conversation.

Practice Selection.

"On a street in one of the obscure quarters of Paris one evening early in the year 18—, stood a young man, wrapped in a cloak, staring intently up to the brilliantly lighted windows in the second story of one of the principal houses in the neighborhood.

"The young man, whose features were shaded by the upturned collar of his cloak, seemed to be hesitating whether or not to enter the house, for he was seen at one moment to pause, then to pace back and forth past the entrance; even to place his foot upon the first step of the stairs, then withdraw it as if he had thought better of it.

"During these moments of irresolution a second person, unobserved, had approached the spot where he stood.

"This person, also a young man, cast a passing glance at the other, in which he seemed to recognize him, for he halted and placed a hand upon his shoulder.

"The young man turned quickly around.

"'Ah! Is it you, Mr. Sterner? Where are you going at this hour?'

"'I have just come from the theatre, and am on my way home,' said Maurits. 'I paused to ask that you accompany me, your home being in the same direction. But what are you doing here, and what character of house is this?'

"'It is a gambling house,' answered the young man, 'and I have been pondering whether or not I should go up. Will you go with me?'

"'No; I never play.'

"'Neither do I; but I am very curious to see how it goes. This is said to be one of the principal establishments of the kind in Paris.'

"'Let it go,' said Maurits. 'Here comes a cab, we will take it and go home.'

"'No, no; I must go up there a little while.'

"'Be careful; I know you. You will be unable to withstand the temptation to try your luck, and your money, whatever you have, will soon be gone.'

"'Heaven forbid!' exclaimed the young man, 'for I have thirty thousand francs in my pocket, the entire fortune of my mother and sister.'

"'How do you happen to have so much money upon you?'

"'Nothing simpler. We have sold our property in Brittany, and I am just come from a notary with whom I completed the transfer, and from whom I have received the money therefor.'

"'More reason, then, why you should not venture up there. Think of your mother and sister, who love you so dearly. It was wholly on your account that they left their little home in Brittany and came here that they might be near you, and witness your progress in the profession you have chosen. How about your new painting?'

"'I have sold it to the marquis on the Rue de Temple for five hundred francs. I have that money with me also.'

"'Well, you possess an easy and pleasant means of gaining a livelihood. Do not now foolishly put your very existence in jeopardy by placing yourself in the way of this temptation. What would be the consequences were you to lose the little capital belonging to your mother and sister?'

"'Great Cæsar! You can't seriously think me such an idiot as that! If I play, it will be with my own money only. I confess to you that I am eager to add a few thousand francs to the sum received for my picture.'

"'Are you, then, so covetous? I thought otherwise. You are an artist.'

"'Yes; but you know how dearly I love Hortense. Is it to be wondered at that I wish to be rich?'

"'Certainly not, Charles; but you cannot gratify your desire up there in that brilliantly lighted den of robbers. Take my advice and be careful.'

"'Good night, Mr. Sterner,' said the young artist, resolutely, 'I am going up. If you had ever loved as I do, you could understand me.'

"'If I had ever loved!' exclaimed Maurits, smiling bitterly.

"'Yes; but you have not. You are not a Southerner. You are from the icy North, where the warmest feelings must freeze; from the land of bears, where men fell trees the year round, and where there are no other flowers than such as are grown in your windows. Your nature is icy even, and you do not understand the children of the South. You presume to advise us. But I am going up there to win a hundred thousand francs, then marry Hortense.' With that he sprang hurriedly up the stairs.

"'I will accompany you, then, into this nest of wild beasts,' said Maurits. 'I am not wont to trouble myself about my fellows, but you interest me against my will. You mean to play, then?'

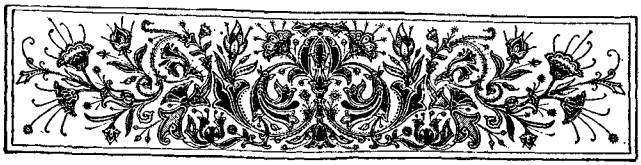
"'Yes; I will try my luck.'

"'A word first,' said Maurits, pausing. 'Leave in my keeping the thirty thousand francs that belong to your mother and sister. Quick, before you enter!'

"'Why so?'

"'In order that you may not risk them at the table.'

"'You are crazy,' laughed the artist. 'Do you think I will touch them?'"



CHAPTER XII

READING ALOUD

Reading and Public Speaking—Correct Position—Holding the Book—Facing the Audience—Reading in the Family—In Public—Dramatic Reading—Speeches and Lectures—Management of Manuscript—Statistical Reports—Sermons—The Bible—The Ritual—Hymns and Poetry—Reading in School.

READING aloud is the connecting link between conversation and public speaking. Whether in the family circle or on the platform, the art of reading well cannot be differentiated from that of speaking well. It calls into exercise the same vocal powers, and requires the same attention to the details of expression and interpretation. As an elocutionary performance there is no essential difference between the vocal utterance of another's thoughts in reading and that of your own in extempore speech. It is only a modified form of the orator's art, or, as an eminent authority has said, "a stepping-stone to public speaking."

Reading and Public Speaking.

Oral reading, of course, may be pursued for its own sake, being a popular form of public entertainment, and occupying an intimate relation to acting.

But the study of elocution in schools and its practice in declamation has distinctly in view the cultivation of the art of public address. For nearly a century in this country the fires of eloquence have been fed by the recitation of masterpieces of oratory in the public and private schools. Practically, therefore, reading aloud is preparatory to public speech.

Effectiveness in reading requires that the body, whether sitting or standing, should be in the correct position. The vocal organs are called into use, and their proper care by the reader is just as important as by the public speaker. Do not cramp the thorax or the larynx. If the reader is to sit, it should be upon a chair which will permit of a perfectly erect position of the upper part of the body. If he is to stand, the position should be identical with that prescribed elsewhere for the public speaker. The easy, free breathing essential to correct vocalization cannot be attained if the body is reclining or the neck bent forward. Hold the head erect so that the air can pass uninterruptedly through the trachea and voice-box. Avoid that constriction of the larynx which is caused by bending the neck or by wearing a tight collar.

Correct Position.

The book or paper from which one reads should also be held in the correct position. Grasp the book in the left hand, and hold it to the side and somewhat below the face. Ordinary print should be read with ease at the distance of eighteen inches from the eye. If a book or paper is thus held, the face is not hidden from the audience. Let the elbow rest easily beside the chest, and the

Holding the Book.

right arm hang naturally at the side. Never hold the book in both hands or close to the face. In that case the larynx will be thrown out of proper position, the reader will vocalize with difficulty, and his words will be lost to his audience. Much of the pleasing effect of good reading lies in resonant utterance, and this is possible only by observance of the simple rules above laid down.

Another object to be sought by the reader is to attract and hold the attention of his auditors. This is best accomplished by looking at them. The eye should be trained to take in many words—whole clauses—at a single glance. This is the result of expert observation, and is one of the secrets of good reading. By a swift mental process the words in a sentence are grouped as are the letters of a word, and the mind grasps the whole, instead of its disjointed parts. The ability to read thus comes from experience and practice, and when the power is attained in its perfection one is able to pronounce the words rapidly, with only occasional swift glances at the book. By this means the eyes may be raised often to those who are listening, and a kind of electric communication of interest and sympathy is established between the reader and the audience.

Look at the Audience.

But good reading is something more than correctly pronouncing words and rendering sentences with due regard to emphasis and rhythm. There is an oratorical effect to be produced, which calls into play all the instincts and attributes of eloquence. Herein lies the utility of vocal training for reading

aloud, whether pursued for its own sake or as a means of practice for public speaking.

Reading in the Family.

The simplest form of reading aloud is that employed in the family circle. One reads, the others listen, and the book may pass into the hands of three or four readers during an evening. The biographers of Charles Dickens have shown to the world the advantages of this practice for amusing and instructing the family. It was his custom to gather the children around him in the evening, and read to them stories, poems, historical selections, and gems from literature. His daughter has said that on these occasions the voice of the great author would change to suit the mood of the writer he was reading, trembling with emotion, loud in wrath, and soft in pathos. On some selections his voice would break, and the rendition would proceed amid half-suppressed sobs and tears. This was the ideal family reading.

The average reading in the family loses much of its interest, because no effort is made to produce oratorical effect. Time is monotonous, vocal action is constrained, and the reading proceeds without attention to emphasis or rhythm, if it does not actually limp and halt on pronunciation. Vocal power and variety of utterance tell as effectually here as in any department of voice-using, and there is no better place than the home in which to begin the education of the public speaker.

Reading in public, recitation or declamation differ but little from reading in the family. The reader studies his selections in advance, and, like the public

speaker, prepares for the occasion. He may even memorize the words, and remove himself from the trammels of a book or notes. Here, evidently, is room for the employment of the art of oratory. The reader is to be grave or gay, passionate or pathetic, vehement or mild, as the nature of the reading may require, and always self-contained and conscious of power. In these respects the public reader is the counterpart of the public speaker, and all that applies to technique in the preparation of the one for his duties, holds good in the case of the other.

Reading in Public.

Dramatic reading is not necessarily the rendering of parts of plays, though that is included in its scope. In a sense, all reading in public is dramatic. Whatever be the piece to be read it is to be produced dramatically—that is, with reference to meaning and to a reproduction of the circumstances which first called forth the words. For instance, "Sheridan's Ride" is as dramatic as "Hamlet's Soliloquy," and "Darius Green and His Flying Machine" as Webster's "Reply to Hayne." The reader is expected in each instance to portray accurately the picture presented in the words of the text. Hence the public reader's work resembles that of the actor as well as that of the public speaker.

Dramatic Reading.

"Suddenly an enormous mass of snow and ice, in itself a mountain, seems to move; it breaks from the toppling outmost mountain ridge of snow, where it is hundreds of feet in depth, and in its first fall of perhaps two thousand feet is broken into millions of

Illustration.

fragments. As you first see the flash of distant artillery by night, then hear the roar, so here you may see the white flashing mass majestically bowing, then hear the astounding din. A cloud of dusty, dry snow rises into the air from the concussion, forming a white volume of fleecy smoke, or misty light, from the bosom of which thunders forth the icy torrent in its second prodigious fall over the rocky battlements. The eye follows it delighted, as it ploughs through the path which preceding avalanches have worn, till it comes to the brink of a vast ridge of bare rock, perhaps more than two thousand feet perpendicular; then pours the whole cataract over the gulf, with a still louder roar of echoing thunder, to which nothing but the noise of Niagara in its sublimity is comparable.

"Another fall of still greater depth ensues, over a second similar castellated ridge or reef in the surface of the mountain, with an awful, majestic slowness, and a tremendous crash in its concussion, awakening again the reverberating peals of thunder. Then the torrent roars on to another smaller fall, till at length it reaches a mighty groove of snow and ice. Here its progress is slower; and last of all you listen to the roar of the falling fragments, as they drop out of sight, with a dead weight, into the bottom of the gulf, to rest there forever.

"Figure to yourself a cataract like that of Niagara, poured in foaming grandeur, not merely over one great precipice of two hundred feet, but over the successive ridgy precipices of two or three thousand, in the face of a mountain eleven thousand feet high, and tumbling, crashing, thundering down with a continuous din of far greater sublimity than the sound of the grandest cataract. The roar of the falling mass begins to be heard the moment it is loosened from the mountain; it pours on with

the sound of a vast body of rushing water; then comes the first great concussion, a booming crash of thunders, breaking on the still air in mid-heaven; your breath is suspended, and you listen and look; the mighty glittering mass shoots headlong over the main precipice, and the fall is so great that it produces to the eye that impression of dread majestic slowness of which I have spoken, though it is doubtless more rapid than Niagara. But if you should see the cataract of Niagara itself coming down five thousand feet above you in the air, there would be the same impression. The image remains in the mind, and can never fade from it; it is as if you had seen an alabaster cataract from heaven. The sound is far more sublime than that of Niagara, because of the preceding stillness in those Alpine solitudes. In the midst of such silence and solemnity, from out the bosom of those glorious, glittering forms of nature, comes that rushing, crashing, thunderburst of sound! If it were not that your soul, through the eye, is as filled and fixed with the sublimity of the vision as, through the sense of hearing, with that of the audible report, methinks you would wish to bury your face in your hands, and fall prostrate, as at the voice of the Eternal."

Reading Speeches and Lectures.

Owing to the serious character of many speeches and lectures, it is desirable that they should be reduced to writing and read from manuscript. The oratorical effect of such reading is, perhaps, of less importance than imparting the instruction contained in the address. It is at best a secondary consideration. But the fact is obvious that a good voice, clear enunciation, the proper use of stress and emphasis, and due regard

to the niceties of utterance, will serve the lecturer quite as well as logical arrangement of his discourse and good style in writing. No greater mistake can be made than to suppose that a man's erudition and learning in his special field will compensate for a total lack of elocutionary training. The audience may endure disagreeable mannerisms in the speech of learned instructors and eminent specialists, but such faults are inexcusable by whomsoever committed. Lectures badly delivered lose much of their intrinsic value. The audience follows the speaker with difficulty, interest lags, and important points may be lost.

The lecture- or speech-reader needs to consider carefully a few details of delivery. First of all, he is to be heard in all parts of the room or hall where he reads. Therefore, his table or reading-desk should be placed to suit the acoustic properties of the place. When he goes upon the stage it should be with a quick and vigorous tread. If he is greeted by applause it may be graciously acknowledged by a slight bow and a smile. After being introduced, he should approach the reading-desk and begin at once in a slow and dignified form of utterance, to enable his auditors to become familiar with his voice, as well as to follow the subject matter of his address. He may warm with his subject, and exhibit later all the oratorical power which the occasion or the subject demands.

In preparing manuscript for use in public speaking a few rules must be observed. Their simplicity may create an impression of unimportance, but they are

among the requisites of success. Write your notes on one side of the paper only. Use paper of no larger size than that known as letter. Write the lines of your speech at least one quarter of an inch apart if you use unruled paper. In choosing ruled paper select the variety that offers ample space between the lines. Typewritten manuscript is preferable to that which is penned. Each word that requires emphasis should be marked. The words at the commencement of each paragraph should be written in capitals. Pauses should be indicated.

Management of Manuscript.

"WE NOW COME TO AN EVENT which ranks as one of the decisive turning points of history.

"FROM THE ARMADA, as from the *battle* of *Hastings* and the *fight* at *Naseby*, *English* history seems to take a *fresh start.*"

Illustrations.

The sheets of manuscript should be numbered. They should not be fastened together when speaking from them. When a sheet has been read, either place it, in holding manuscript in the hand, at the back of its fellows, or, if reading at a desk, in a pile beside them.

Attention should be given to the reading of formal reports and statistical compilations. These can be made interesting if they are delivered in such a manner as to invite attention. The reader should be familiar with his manuscript, should read with clear tones and distinct articulation. Statistics, if used, should be carefully arranged and read with the confidence and certainty of discourse

Statistical Reports.

in which they do not appear. It was said of Mr. Gladstone that he could make a compilation of figures luminous as a page from Homer. He did it by mastering the statistics and pouring them forth without hesitating for a word, and in tones of voice that penetrated to every part of the House of Commons. Reports are very dry subjects only when their readers make them so.

Practise the following statistical selection, reading it in initial pitch and tone. Read by clauses, and keep the interest of the audience in view.

To Maranham, Brazil, the distance from New Orleans is about 3800 miles; from Newport News, 3108 miles. I use Newport News as illustrative of the Middle Atlantic ports, such as Norfolk and Baltimore. At this point they use Cardiff coal at $12 per ton. West Virginia coal can be laid down at that harbor at less than $5 per ton. At Pernambuco, British and German coal is used. This costs $11 to $15 per ton. From New Orleans to Pernambuco is but 4580 miles; from Newport News it is 3888. We can sell them West Virginia coal at that point at $5.50 per ton. At Montevideo, Uruguay, they use British coal, which costs $13 per ton. West Virginia coal can be put in that market at $8 per ton. At Buenos Ayres they use Cardiff coal, which costs $14. Buenos Ayres is 7274 miles from New Orleans and 6582 miles from Newport News. West Virginia coal can be placed in this market for $6 per ton. At Acapulco, Mexico, Cardiff and Australian coals are used, which cost $20 per ton. This port is only 2285 miles from New

Illustration.

Orleans and 2756 miles from Newport News. The Appalachian coal can be placed in that port for less than $5 per ton. At Callao, Peru, Cardiff coal is used, which costs $15 per ton. Callao is 2984 miles from New Orleans and 3455 miles from Newport News. West Virginia coal can be placed in that market at $5 to $6 per ton. Valparaiso, Chili, uses Australian coal and Cardiff coal. These coals cost in that port $8 per ton. This port is only 4254 miles from New Orleans and about 4725 miles from Newport News, and is almost in a straight line from New Orleans through the canal. West Virginia coal can be placed in that market at $5.60 to $6 per ton.

Reading Sermons.

An unreasonable prejudice exists in the minds of many against written sermons, growing out of the lifelessness of the average delivery. With proper attention to elocutionary effect, there is no reason that a discourse should not be as satisfactory when read as when spoken. I am of the opinion, indeed, that thorough preparation for pulpit reading would result in quite as good or better preaching than that of the purely extempore type.

The sermon reader should not be too much confined to his notes. After writing, the preacher should spend some time in familiarizing himself with his manuscript, until he knows the contents of every page, and needs only a glance here and there to keep the run of the discourse. Then he will have opportunity to look his parishioners in the eye while he reads to them.

Have a reading-desk, and do not trust to laying the notes flat on the pulpit. The latter is too low

and will inevitably lead to constrained vocalization, and later to clerical sore throat. No effort need be made to conceal the fact that the sermon is being read. The congregation cannot be deceived.

Finally, the preacher should throw as much energy into his reading as he would into an extemporaneous effort. This may be done if he knows his manuscript, and does not have to hold his finger on the lines for fear of losing his place. Attention should also be given to the arrangement of light, so that vision shall not be impeded. And with these precautions, the reading of sermons will be found to detract nothing from genuine pulpit eloquence.

Illustration.

"Whatever may be the obstacles which ignorance, prejudice, and envy oppose to the doctrines of religion, we ought never to be deterred from propagating them. Whatever talents you may possess, whatever advantages you may have received from nature and education, with whatever perfections you may be endowed, expect only the suffrage of a small number of men. By ascending to an association with our ancestors, by contemplating their example and studying their character, by partaking of their sentiments and imbibing their spirit, by accompanying them in their toils, by sympathizing in their sufferings and rejoicing in their successes and their triumphs, we mingle our existence with theirs, and seem to belong to their age. How men have labored to disprove them, what intellectual power and ardor and acumen, urged on by inveterate hate, have assailed their credibility; what stores of learning have been exhausted, what wit and what ridicule expended, to evince their absurdity; what ferocity of god-

less ambition, of bigoted power, and even of popular legislation, have been employed to enervate, if not destroy their influence, is well known. Those who fell victims to their principles in the civil convulsions of the short-lived republics of Greece, or who sunk beneath the power of her invading foes; those victims of Austrian tyranny in Switzerland, and of Spanish tyranny in Holland; the solitary champions, or the united bands of high-minded and patriotic men who have in any region or age, struggled and suffered in this great cause; belong to that people of the free, whose fortunes and progress are the most noble theme which man can contemplate."

Bible Reading.

Observation proves that Bible reading in the majority of churches is very defective. Perhaps not one clergyman in ten reads a chapter so as to make its meaning clear, and possibly not one in twenty adds to correct reading the attribute of effectiveness. The Bible contains a great variety of literature, from the poetical and sublime allusions of the Psalms to the argumentative Epistles of St. Paul. The stories of Ruth and Esther are full of pathos, and there is no more inspiring theme than the Sermon on the Mount. Of all books the Bible should invite eloquent reading, entirely apart from the sacred character of its writings.

Read the Bible as you would read any other book, that is, with a view to the natural expression of its meaning, and to the portrayal of whatever thought may be in its various passages. From no other work of literature would a reader render a selection of the character of David's lament over Absalom in

the same tone and manner as Paul's defence before Agrippa. The Bible is usually read in monotone or in that peculiar drawl which has received the designation of the "sanctimonious tone." This is indefensible, illogical, and to the cultivated mind almost insufferable.

Do not be afraid of criticism in departing from established usage. Those in the congregation who are wedded to the "tone" will soon forget it if the Scriptures are read "with the tongue and with the understanding also." Study the chapter selected for reading, and give it oratorical interpretation. Let the Bible reading be a feature of the Church service, as much as the singing or the sermon. Then the discovery will soon be made that correct interpretation of the Sacred Text by voice, gesture, tone, and manner is quite as effective as the exposition of sound theology from the pulpit.

Good reading is not theatrical or stagey, and the clergyman who undertakes to apply true elocutionary standards in Bible reading need not fear the effect of any slur of criticism. Let him persevere until such fault-finding is stilled, as it will be by the greater interest taken in the morning or evening "lesson." Upon this point it has been said "We must not yield to the stage the exclusive right to present in correct and forcibly uttered language the aspirations and joys, the sorrows and despair of humanity."

"Then Agrippa said unto Paul, Thou art permitted to speak for thyself. Then Paul stretched forth the hand, and answered for himself:

Illustration.

"I think myself happy, King Agrippa, because I shall answer for myself this day, before thee, touching all the things whereof I am accused of the Jews:

"Especially because I know thee to be expert in all customs and questions which are among the Jews: wherefore I beseech thee to hear me patiently.

"My manner of life from my youth, which was at the first among mine own nation at Jerusalem, know all the Jews;

"Which knew me from the beginning, if they would testify, that after the most straitest sect of our religion I lived a Pharisee.

"And now I stand and am judged for the hope of the promise made of God unto our fathers:

"Unto which promise our twelve tribes, instantly serving God day and night, hope to come. For which hope's sake, King Agrippa, I am accused of the Jews.

"Why should it be thought a thing incredible with you that God should raise the dead?

"I verily thought with myself, that I ought to do many things contrary to the name of Jesus of Nazareth.

"Which thing I also did in Jerusalem: and many of the saints did I shut up in prison, having received authority from the chief priests; and when they were put to death I gave my voice against them.

"And I punished them oft in every synagogue, and compelled them to blaspheme; and being exceedingly mad against them, I persecuted them even unto strange cities.

"Whereupon as I went to Damascus with authority and commission from the chief priests,

"At midday, O king, I saw in the way a light from heaven, above the brightness of the sun, shining round about me and them which journeyed with me.

" And when we were all fallen to the earth, I heard a voice speaking unto me, and saying in the Hebrew tongue, Saul, Saul, why persecutest thou me? it is hard for thee to kick against the pricks.

" And I said, Who art thou, Lord? And he said, I am Jesus whom thou persecutest.

" But rise, and stand upon thy feet: for I have appeared unto thee for this purpose, to make thee a minister and a witness both of these things which thou hast seen, and of those things in the which I will appear unto thee;

" Delivering thee from the people, and from the Gentiles, unto whom I now send thee.

" To open their eyes, and to turn them from darkness to light, and from the power of Satan unto God, that they may receive forgiveness of sins, and inheritance among them which are sanctified by faith that is in me.

" Whereupon, O King Agrippa, I was not disobedient unto the heavenly vision:

" But shewed first unto them of Damascus, and at Jerusalem, and throughout all the coasts of Judea, and then to the Gentiles, that they should repent and turn to God, and do works meet for repentance.

" For these causes the Jews caught me in the temple, and went about to kill me.

" Having therefore obtained help of God, I continue unto this day, witnessing both to small and great, saying none other things than those which the prophets and Moses did say should come:

" That Christ should suffer, and that he should be the first that should rise from the dead, and should shew light unto the people, and to the Gentiles.

" And as he thus spake for himself, Festus said with a loud voice, Paul, thou art beside thyself; much learning doth make thee mad.

"But he said, I am not mad, most noble Festus; but speak forth the words of truth and soberness.

"For the king knoweth of these things, before whom also I speak freely; for I am persuaded that none of these things are hidden from him; for this thing was not done in a corner.

"King Agrippa, believest thou the prophets? I know that thou believest.

"Then Agrippa said unto Paul, Almost thou persuadest me to be a Christian.

"And Paul said, I would to God, that not only thou, but also all that hear me this day, were both almost and altogether such as I am, except these bonds.

"And when he had thus spoken, the king rose up, and the governor, and Bernice, and they that sat with them:

"And when they were gone aside, they talked between themselves, saying, This man doeth nothing worthy of death or of bonds.

"Then said Agrippa unto Festus, This man might have been set at liberty, if he had not appealed unto Cæsar."

Ritualistic Reading.

The same principles apply to the public reading of prayers and the church ritual. Unless this form of service is intoned or sung, there is no possible excuse for reading it other than in the natural manner. The Book of Common Prayer of the English Church is filled with passages capable of being read with remarkable oratorical effect. But when rendered in a careless tone these devotional readings lose nearly all their natural rhythm and power.

"O Lord, our heavenly Father, the high and mighty Ruler of the universe, who dost from thy throne behold all the dwellers upon earth; Most heartily we beseech thee, with thy favor to behold and bless thy servant THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES, and all others in authority; and so replenish them with the grace of thy Holy Spirit, that they may always incline to thy will, and walk in thy way. Endue them plenteously with heavenly gifts; grant them in health and prosperity long to live; and finally, after this life, to attain everlasting joy and felicity; through Jesus Christ our Lord. Amen."

Illustration.

Hymn reading in the pulpit is often more badly done than the reading of the Bible. When some unnatural tone is used and when greater attention is directed to poetical measure than to the sense of the words, the result is always bad. Yet the average clergyman seems to act upon the impression that he must not read the hymns in a manner to bring out the sentiment of the words. He either anticipates the choir in trying to sing or adopts a tone of voice which robs the poetry of its principal beauties of expression.

Hymns and Poetry.

The principal rule to be observed in reading poetry is to shun the sing-song style. In the effort to mark the cesuræ and to make a pause at the end of each line many readers fall into a chant or jingle which detracts from the meaning of the words. Rhythmic form is essential to versification, but in reading poetry, as in prose, the interpretation of the thought is the important thing to be considered. If it is sacrificed to the rhythm, the result is disastrous. On

the other hand, when poetical cadence is subordinated to the inspiring words and thoughts of which it is the vehicle of expression, the result is an oratorical effect grander than that obtainable from prose writing.

" When I survey the wondrous cross,
On which the Prince of glory died,
My richest gain I count but loss, Illustration.
And pour contempt on all my pride.

" Forbid it, Lord, that I should boast,
Save in the death of Christ, my God;
All the vain things that charm me most,
I sacrifice them to his blood.

" See, from His head, His hands, His feet,
Sorrow and love flow mingled down:
Did e'er such love and sorrow meet,
Or thorns compose so rich a crown ?

" Were the whole realm of nature mine,
That were a present far too small;
Love so amazing, so divine,
Demands my soul, my life, my all."

Avoid the stop at the end of the line, if the sense requires two or more lines to be read together. In this way the thoughts will be brought out clearly, and by a little reference to poetical measure the rhythm need not be interrupted. In like manner there should be due observance of emphasis, inflection, and modulation, the same rules being applicable as in prose. By attention to these details in

rendering poetry, it becomes the most attractive form of public or private reading.

Reading in School.

It is highly important that young students should be taught to read in the public schools, and just as important that they should learn to read correctly. The effort of the average teacher is directed usually to the proper pronunciation of words. As long as the pupil does not err in that regard, his other faults are too often condoned. Some teachers are indifferent readers, and wholly incapable of imparting instruction in the finer points of correct expression. Consequently, public education in reading is seriously defective, and habits are often fastened upon the young in the school-room which weeks of subsequent effort and practice cannot eradicate. Public school teachers should be as well grounded in the principles of elocution, as in the fundamental elements of grammar or the rudiments of geography. If such were the case, many of the vocal evils resulting from incorrect methods of teaching reading in the schools would be avoided. There is no reason why the child should not learn to read as well from the standpoint of vocal expression, as from that of the mere pronunciation of words.

There are difficulties in the way, but the teacher can accomplish much by following a few simple rules. First, endeavor to have the individual pupil or the class get at the thought of a single sentence, if it is nothing more than "Willie has a red kite." Let it be read correctly, with proper intonation and emphasis. The pupils will repeat the line after the

teacher, and imitate her, and by pursuing this course, even the smallest scholars will soon be making progress along right lines.

The next step is to teach the pupil that we think in groups, and here the complex or compound sentence must be brought into requisition. Suppose the example chosen is, " We are men, and we fight the battles of our country." This should be given by the teacher so as to bring out the thought. Let the single pupil or the class repeat it until it is rendered in the proper tone of voice and with appropriate emphasis on the words men, fight, battles, and country. Examples should be multiplied from day to day until the groundwork of a good reading habit is laid.

The third step is to bring two or more sentences together into a paragraph. This is more difficult because of pauses and punctuation marks. But perseverance will triumph, and the painstaking teacher will experience the satisfaction of seeing her class learning to read well. A very good book for primary teachers is *How to Read Aloud*, by S. H. Clark (University of Chicago). For secondary scholars I recommend *Reading Aloud*, by J. S. Clark (Henry Holt & Co., New York).

In closing this chapter a word should be said on the general subject of choosing topics for declamation or reading. Even trained elocutionists err in this particular. A man of small stature and frail physique would not be suited to the portrayal of Shakespeare's Falstaff, nor could a woman of uncertain age and ample proportions pro-

Selections for Declamation.

perly impersonate Juliet or Rosalind. Moreover, there is a ludicrous effect produced when a schoolboy with piping voice undertakes to declaim "Spartacus to the Gladiators" or to roll out the flaming periods of "Rienzi to the Romans." Much of the value of school drill in declamation is lost by this fault of choosing improper subjects. Little boys are often encouraged to declaim selections clearly beyond their comprehension. This is radically wrong, inasmuch as the first requisite of correct reading is a thorough understanding of what is read. And this applies to the selection of subjects in all kinds of public reading. There should be as obvious harmony between the selections rendered and the occasion, as between the persons portrayed and the physical and mental characteristics of the reader himself.

CHAPTER XIII

PREPARATION FOR PUBLIC SPEAKING

Importance of Preparation—The Subject—Basic Proposition—Provisional Analysis—Accumulating Material—Documents, Reviews, Books—Bibliography—A Discriminating Judgment—Study both Sides of the Subject—Value of Materials—Taking Notes—Analysis and Proof.

PREPARATION is the basis of success in public speaking. Genius, tact, and skill may be valuable aids to oratory, but they cannot be depended upon by the speaker without careful preparation. Socrates used to say that men could be eloquent on any subject they thoroughly understood. But clearly the converse of the proposition is true, and Cicero was right in maintaining that no one can speak eloquently on a subject he does not understand. The first consideration is to master the subject and all the facts pertaining to it, and then the public speaker may trust himself to enter "the dim and perilous way" of platform or forensic address.

Importance of Preparation.

It is doubtful whether any great oration that has outlived the hour of its delivery was entirely extempore. Speaking "on the

Genius for Hard Work.

spur of the moment" is generally as weak as it is spontaneous. No public speaker will risk his reputation to the inspiration of any conceivable occasion. Daniel Webster's reply to Hayne was not the outcome of an evening's meditation, but, as he afterwards said, the result of many years of thought and study. The platform, the bar, or the floor of an assembly are not so many fields for display, but for hard work in binding the sheaves and garnering the grains of eloquence.

The public speaker has a definite end to accomplish. If he be a clergyman, there are hearts to be moved and souls to be saved by his sermons. The lawyer must convince courts and win verdicts from juries. The platform speaker is called upon to enforce his views of truth, so as to carry his audience. In the debate of the collegiate contest there is a laudable ambition to win. The political speaker desires votes, and his eloquence is wasted if it does not increase the number of followers around his standard. And in that wider field of speech in the counting-room, office, and the marts of trade there is always an end to be attained, which, if missed, means failure. Therefore a burden rests upon the speaker, of whatever station in life, which should not be put upon untried shoulders. The end in view should be the only plea needed for painstaking preparation on the part of those who expect to move men by the use of eloquent words.

The End in View.

A thorough knowledge of the subject is the only safeguard in the crisis of delivery. A man cannot develop a subject logically and expound truth with

feeling and force when his ideas are only half formed. It was Webster who somewhat tartly replied to a young clergyman: "There is no such thing as extemporaneous acquisition."

The subject for discussion is the first thing to be considered in preparation for public speaking. It may be assigned or it may be chosen by the speaker, but, from whatever source it comes, it forms the starting-point. The subject must be mastered. This is the groundwork alike of preparation and of effective speech afterward. As it is true that the orator cannot safely go beyond the absolute knowledge of facts in his possession, a complete command of the subject, follows as a logical necessity. The fact should also be borne in mind that the work of preparation is not primarily for display, but is undertaken for a specific object, the interests of which may not be jeopardized. And this affords an additional reason for thorough work.

The Subject.

The subject can generally be stated in a simple proposition. Around that single thought will naturally cluster fact, evidence, argument, and final proof. From the small beginning thus laid down, the finished address grows: like the tree, marked by the concentric rings: aided by investigation, thought, and study. Suppose, for example, it is intended to prepare an address on the annexation of the Philippine Islands. The subject takes tangible shape the moment it is stated in this simple form: The Philippines should be annexed. This is easily comprehended, and with it to start from, the search for facts and proofs may begin.

The Basic Proposition.

Reduce subjects of discussion to plain, concise propositions. Define terms, if necessary, and make the starting point clear and tangible.

SUBJECT—The Nicaragua Canal.

BASIC PROPOSITION—The United States should own, construct, and operate the Nicaragua Canal.

Illustration.

DEFINITION OF TERMS—*The United States* means the National Government at Washington, represented by the President and Congress. *The Nicaragua Canal* is the proposed deep-water way for ocean ships, between the waters of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, across Nicaragua from Greytown to Brito, by way of the San Juan River and Lake Nicaragua, projected and begun by the Maritime Canal Company. *Should* means expedient as a public measure. *Own* means to possess, as rightful property. *Construct* means to build or cause to be built under the supervision of Government engineers. *Operate* means to manage directly as public property.

In this fundamental examination of the subject the investigator needs what Sir Arthur Helps designated as an almost ignominious love of detail. Not a fact that has the slightest bearing on the subject should be overlooked. It may afterwards be thrown away, giving place to something more important, but the speaker is now after material, and it must be freely gathered wherever found. It was the great Michael Angelo who said, trifles make perfection and perfection is not a trifle. Consequently, at the start note everything that bears upon the subject, for even the fugitive

An Eye for Detail.

thought may be required after a while in finishing or in giving strength to the argumentative edifice.

Next in importance to a clear statement and definition of the subject is the Provisional Analysis. Reasons will occur almost spontaneously to the mind in support of the original proposition. These should be carefully noted down and arranged with reference to their logical bearing upon the subject. They may be subsequently discarded or retained, and the provisional analysis may be changed a score of times before it becomes the complete analysis; yet it marks the way through the tangled mass of material to clear thought and argument beyond. The provisional analysis is to the public speaker what the theory of the case is to the lawyer, and it serves a useful purpose as a temporary means of orderly and systematic work.

Provisional Analysis.

The provisional analysis should be written out as follows:

A. THE CANAL IS NECESSARY.

Illustration.

(*a*). From the naval standpoint.

(*b*). From the commercial standpoint.

B THE PROJECT IS FEASIBLE.

(*a*). Can be constructed by methods well understood by engineers.

(*b*). Its cost is probably within an expenditure of $150,000,000.

(*c*). Its operating expenses would be met from total receipts, leaving a profit for investment.

C. CONTROL BY UNITED STATES NECESSARY.
  (*a*). Must be controlled by a strong nation or nations.
  (*b*). Would more closely unite Atlantic and Pacific coasts.
  (*c*). Commercial and political interests require it.
  (*d*). European control would violate Monroe Doctrine and would be dangerous.
D. CONTROL INVOLVES OWNERSHIP AND OPERATION.
E. A GREAT BENEFIT TO THE WORLD AT LARGE.

The utility of this early analysis will be the better appreciated as study of the subject proceeds. With the original proposition it forms a conception more or less clear of what is to be sought by reading and reflection. The investigator's knowledge is not complete, else he would not be called upon to resort to the sources of information to form and to classify his thoughts. But the provisional analysis gives him the obvious advantage of having something to work upon. According to Mazzini, the great discoveries which have had a moulding influence upon the thought of the world have been worked out patiently from hypotheses. The scientific method is the true one in fashioning an argument or framing a speech.

Its Value.

One caution, however, should be recorded. While the provisional analysis is useful in guiding the investigation, it should not dominate that work. The purpose of the search after information is not to prove the working hypothesis,

A Caution.

but to arrive at the truth. The points made in this early classification are only tentative and for a temporary purpose. The mind in the period of study needs to be kept in the receptive attitude, ready at all times to accept the truth when found. This may result in the final abandonment of one or more lines of inquiry, but parts of the provisional analysis will stand. The working hypothesis simply satisfies the requirements of mental action. For, as Plato said, a searcher after truth must have some knowledge of what he is searching for, otherwise he could not recognize it when found.

With the conception of the subject formed by the provisional analysis, go to the sources of information. These are mainly newspapers, periodicals, books or documents. In consulting periodicals make use of Poole's *Index to Periodical Literature* and the *Cumulative Index*, both always at hand in public libraries. Consult especially for recent topics of discussion such publications as *The Literary Digest* (New York), *Public Opinion* (New York), *Current History* (Boston), and *The Review of Reviews* (New York). If daily newspapers are to be examined, the files are accessible in the offices of publication, in the archives of historical societies, and in large libraries. Much valuable information is also obtainable from the *World* and *Tribune Almanacs* (New York), from *Whittaker's Almanac* (London), and the *Statesman's Year Book* (London). Indices to the public documents issued in Washington should also be consulted, and, on special themes, documents in local historical societies may be ex-

Accumulating Material.

amined. Consult freely library catalogues and published bibliographies, found in the reference cases of libraries. The cyclopædias may also be read with a view to obtaining a clear and condensed statement of the subject.

In law, evidence is to be sought from reliable witnesses, and the same course may be pursued with other subjects. If the subject of investigation relates to commercial, scientific, or technical matters of any kind, persons with expert knowledge on these points may be interviewed, and their ideas accepted as reliable information. The prime object in view is to obtain the facts bearing upon the subject with as little outlay of time as possible.

At this point a page from the investigator's notebook upon the question stated above, will appear about as follows:

Illustration.

General References—*The Nicaragua Canal* (pub. by N. C. Construction Company, 1891). President Cleveland's Message, Dec. 8, 1885. *North American Review* (Feb., 1893, p. 193). *U. S. Senate Reports*, 1890–91, No. 1944. *House Reports*, 1888–89, No. 4167. *Forum*, Feb. 1894, p. 714–721.

Coal in San Francisco.

In San Francisco the coals at wholesale are about as follows:

Seattle coal . . .	$ 6.00
Cardiff coal	7.25
Australian coal . . .	6.25
Cumberland coal . . .	13.00
Lehigh coal . . .	17.00

At a fair average, West Virginia coal in the Appalachian coal-field can be laid down in the harbor of San Francisco at the rate of from $5.50 to $5.75 per ton. In addition to this, there is no comparison between the Seattle coal and the Appalachian coal. The last has the advantage in quality of from $1.50 to $2.25 per ton.

W. A. MACCORKLE.

Cotton in Japan—D. B. Lucas, *Nicaragua*, p. 157.

Note.—This canal will intensify the American feeling, and, more than any other work, strengthen and invigorate commerce.—MACCORKLE.

Diplomatic side of the Question—Francis Wharton, *International Law Digest*, vol. ii., p. 238.

National Control—*Public Opinion* (Dec. 31, 1892).

Note.—Can we longer refuse to accept our destiny?

The Use of Books.

As above indicated, the investigator is to consult bibliographies, catalogues, and finding lists in search of books bearing upon his theme. Go to the cyclopædias first, to take the bearings of the subject, and to obtain a brief but comprehensive view. Then search the reviews for more detailed statements. Finally, consult the books referred to in the various indices. In the course of this preliminary work the student will be cited to more original authorities than he will have time to consult. The best plan is to select one or two for somewhat careful examination and refer only casually to the rest. Possibly, he will not have time to read one through, and at this juncture comes in the ability to find the main points discussed in a book

and to appropriate them to use. There are leading chapters or parts of chapters where the subject is treated in brief. These should be read. Notes should be taken, and the volume should not be laid down until the gist of what it says is mastered. This is the only practical course where there are many books. It is applicable, generally, to the few standard works, which the investigator will naturally conclude that he ought to read.

For practical work in the investigation of common subjects I subjoin the following bibliography. It is suggestive rather than complete, and will serve as a guide to the student until he has become familiar with the catalogues, finding lists, and bibliographies.

Bibliography.

Cyclopædias.

Johnson's Cyclopædia, American, contains biographical, political, historical, and scientific studies.

Appleton's American Cyclopædia and *American Annual Cyclopædia*, the latter issued from 1861–1874, are replete with biographies, historical sketches, documents, and summaries of events.

Chambers's Cyclopædia, American Revision, can be referred to on the same general lines as the foregoing.

Encyclopædia Britannica (ninth edition), Edinburgh, with American Supplement, has articles upon a great variety of subjects, but omits living men and largely matters outside the British Empire. It is, however, a useful reference book.

Larned's *History for Ready Reference and Topical*

Reading. Very useful compilation of historical and biographical topics.

For Current Events.

The *World Almanac*, New York, annual since 1873. Has details of national and state governments, general, commercial, industrial, and political statistics, and abstracts of current events and legislation.

The *Tribune Almanac*, New York, annual since 1856. Similar to the foregoing.

Congressional Record. Congressional Documents, Senate Executive. Senate Miscellaneous. Senate Reports, House Executive Documents. House Miscellaneous. House Reports. Washington. Records of proceedings in Congress and in the several Departments of the Government.

Jones. *Finding List*, Washington. Shows where in the above Government publications, topics under various subjects are discussed.

Poole's *Index to Periodical Literature*, Boston. Original work published in 1853. *Third edition* complete to 1882. *First Supplement* to 1887. *Second Supplement* to 1892. The work since carried on by the *Annual Library Index*, New York.

Cumulative Index to Periodical Literature, Cleveland, contains titles of leading review and magazine articles for the previous month.

Jones, *Index to Legal Periodical Literature*, Boston. Contains titles to over 150 sets of legal periodicals, and is useful in the study of legal, political, and constitutional subjects.

History.

Channing and Hart, *Guide to the Study of American History*, Ginn & Co., Boston. Contains a complete bibliography of United States history, together with suggestive hints and helps to aid the investigator in his search for books pertaining to his subject.

Politics and Economics.

Bowker and Iles' *Readers' Guide in Economic, Social, and Political Science*, Putnam's, New York. A classified bibliography of American, English, French, and German works, with descriptive notes.

Whittaker's Almanac, London, annual since 1869. Contains compilations and statistics relating to the British Empire.

The Annual Register, London and New York, Longmans, Green & Co., annual since 1858. Is a review of public events at home and abroad, containing summaries of foreign politics.

The Statesman's Year Book, London, Macmillan & Co., annual since 1864. A statistical and historical annual of the states of the world.

Statistical Abstract of the United States, Bureau of Statistics, Washington, Government Printer, annual since 1878. Statistics on commerce, banks, debts, shipping, taxes, etc.

Secretary of the Treasury, *Annual Report*, annual since 1879, composed of official statements as to currency, coinage, banks, public debt, and other financial matters.

Poor's Manual of Railroads, New York, annual since 1868. Includes statistics of railways and railway corporations in the United States and Canada,

also state, county, and city debts. Since 1895 it contains a department of street railway statistics.

Mulhall's Dictionary of Statistics, London, Routledge, 1892. Standard compilation of statistics for the world.

McPherson's *Handbook of Politics*, Washington, biennial since 1868. A record of important political action, legislative and executive, national and state.

Church and Smith, *Tables and Contents of the Annals of Congress*, Washington. Shows in what volume of the above publications a particular topic or decision may be found.

Miscellaneous.

Fletcher, *The A. L. A. Index*, Boston, annual by the American Library Association. Index to general literature, biographical, historical, literary essays and sketches, reports and publications of boards and societies dealing with education, health, labor, charities, correction, etc. Useful on social and political subjects.

In accumulating material, it becomes necessary to exercise discrimination in what shall be retained and what shall be passed over. Every fact does not apply to the particular case in hand. It may be true that the Aurora Borealis is formed by electricity, but the fact could have only a very remote bearing upon the question of American ownership and control of the Nicaragua Canal. It is equally important to observe that a public address is not composed alone of words or argument or fine flowing talk. Determine the value

A Discriminating Judgment.

of the facts as you proceed. Sift the evidence, retaining that which will aid in elucidating the subject, and discard that which is irrelevant. Keep the grain always clear of the chaff.

In this work of investigation the mind should act quickly. The reader ought to be able to grasp the important points without an instant's hesitation. That is, to know truth when he sees it. Prompt decision upon what is important and what is not, will save much time and develop right habits of thought.

Act Quickly.

But he who studies only one side of a subject, never truly investigates it. There is criticism to meet, and a sound argument cannot be established without foreseeing objection and skilfully preparing for it in advance. The silent debate between the public speaker and his critical sense is often more difficult to win than a contest against an eloquent opponent on the floor. The public speaker can never be sure of his ground unless he has actually overcome in his own mind the principal views held by others who differ from him.

Study both Sides.

For example, in arguing for the Government ownership of the Nicaragua Canal it would be necessary to meet and dispose of the objection, that if the waterway is a necessity, it can be better built and operated by a private company. Three men out of six believe this, and, in support of their theory, they will cite the construction of railroads in the United States and the establishment of steamship lines. One of the first duties of the speaker upon the affirmative side of

Illustration.

this question, therefore, would be to remove the idea of private ownership from the minds of his auditors.

Clear thought is the foundation of persuasive speech. Vague conceptions will be a hindrance to the speaker when he faces his audience. Hence the necessity for deliberate reflection in the work of preparation. Sir William Hamilton declared that clear thinking, distinct thinking, and connected thinking were the virtues of the intellect, and they are assuredly mighty aids to effective public discourse.

Clear Thinking.

Having now assembled the rough material for speaking, the next step is to put it into proper form for use. This requires a conception of the relative value of such materials. There will be an array of facts here, a pile of disjointed argumentation there, a series of historical and poetical allusions on one side, and a mass of authorities on the other. It is necessary to inaugurate some method of sorting and classification. To this end the investigator should know the relations which exist between fact and evidence, and between real and presumptive proof. He needs to understand what is meant by the burden of proof, and where it rests. The whole field should be explored, and that which is valuable should be separated from that which is not.

Value of Materials.

A striking example of the use of irrelevant material in discourse is found in the sermon of a Scotch Presbyterian clergyman. His text was from the words: "Thou shalt drink of thy sister's cup: it

containeth much." The treatment of the subject is thus described:

Illustration.

"'Thy sister's cup: it containeth much: thou shalt drink of it; of thy sister's cup shalt thou drink; it containeth much: a full cup, brethren, it containeth much: yes, thou shalt drink of thy sister's cup; it containeth much,—these are the words of our text.'

"I give you in the rough my impressions of the sermon after thirty years, not claiming verbal accuracy. The impression of the exposition, however, which has remained in my mind, justifies this inane mouthing of the text as the preliminary to the following exposition. The exegesis of the word 'cup' was the burden of it. I do not exaggerate in saying that he told us of the great variety of senses in which the word 'cup' is used in the Scriptures. 'A marvellous word is it. The Bible speaks of the "cup of salvation," and, again, of the "cup of consolation"; then it is "the cup of trembling," and "the wine-cup of fury." Babylon is called a golden cup. The cup of Joseph which was hidden in the sack of Benjamin was a silver cup. The Pharisees, we are told, made clean the outside of the cup; and, he shall not lose his reward who giveth a cup of cold water in the name of a disciple. And therefore in the text we are told, "Thou shalt drink of thy sister's cup: it containeth much."' The preacher rambled on in this manner, with his finger on the right page of the concordance, till at last the sound of the word 'cup.' was made familiar to the audience; and having accumulated, as I have in this paragraph, a respectable bulk of sounding brass, the preacher announced as his subject of discourse the future punishment of the wicked."

The question of writing down notes of what is read or thought upon the subject is an important one to consider. There is, of course, one better place for knowledge than in note-books, and that is in the memory of the speaker. Yet the written memorandum has its place, and well-arranged notes, suggesting in catchwords and in abbreviated form the information gathered from various sources, are indispensable. The chief point to be remembered is, that no great reliance is to be put upon them. Dependence upon notes weakens the memory, and is apt to prove a hindrance to clear and connected thinking. But notes are necessary. There are quotations to be preserved in their exact form, and outlines of argument and statement of fact, with appropriate reference to the source of information, are useful. Notes should be written on separate cards or stiff sheets of paper, with some catchword as an appropriate heading. Then the sheets can be arranged according to the various subdivisions of the subject, those relating to the same topic being fastened together to avoid mixing and confusion.

Taking Notes.

NOTE—*King Cotton.*

One of the staple productions of the Mississippi Valley—From 1884 to 1896 the growth of C. increased from 6,000,000 to 9,000,000 bales—Within twenty years the crop has been worth more than $5,500,000,000—Of each crop three-fifths are exported and two-fifths retained for home consumption—Value of exports since 1885,

Illustration.

$3,800,000,000—C. is largely exported to England, and manufactured there for distribution all over the world—Great Britain has 100,000,000 spindles and the United States has less than 60,000,000—C. is manufactured in the Southern States; with proper facilities for transportation could be sent to Japan, China, and other Oriental countries more cheaply than from England—China in 1890 imported $61,000,000 worth of cotton goods, of which $5,000,000 worth came from the United States—In 1898 we had succeeded in capturing only a little over $7,000,000 of this trade—With the Nicaragua Canal in operation, an incentive would be given to the manufacturing of C. at home to supply the trade of countries bordering on the Pacific.

Revising the Analysis.

While considering the value of materials, the work of revising the provisional analysis will proceed. The argument will gradually take shape as the sorting process goes on. It is possible, indeed, at this point to make, subject to further revisions, a nearly complete draft of the analysis.

A preliminary revision of the first section of the analysis given on page 243 will approximate the following form:

A. The Canal is Necessary.

(*a*) For naval purposes.

Illustrations.

Trips of the *Oregon*—A navy in each ocean—Sending supplies and reinforcements to Manila—To protect Hawaii and the Philippines.

(*b*). For the benefit of Commerce.
Shortening the routes of transportation—Trade with the Orient (*Commerce and Navigation*, July, 1898)—Trade with Peru and Chili—Southern coal in the Pacific—The cotton trade—California lumber for the Eastern market — Development of both coasts of our own country by reciprocal trade.

It is a recognized principle of the Common Law that the person who formally asserts a fact or proposition must prove it. This is exactly the position of the public speaker in framing his discourse. Having laid down his proposition, the burden of proof rests upon him and must be lifted. Mere assertion or denial is not enough, however positive it may be made. Reasons must be brought forward which will convince the mind of truth, and compel assent. These reasons need not only to be stated, but to be fortified and defended. And at last the main proposition must follow as a logical deduction from the argument. This sequence of ideas is important and serves as a framework to support the proof.

Burden of Proof.

The question raised in the subject proposition is proved when its truth is made obvious to the mind. A distinction, however, should be noted between belief, and conviction resting upon proof. The believing mind may be satisfied of the truth of a proposition before it is proved. It is the work of the speech-builder to construct a

How much to Prove.

fabric of fact and argument which shall satisfy the critical or doubting mind. Therefore, any discrepancy between the original proposition and the facts adduced to substantiate it is fatal to proof. To revert to our illustration, it may be true that the Nicaragua Canal should be owned, constructed, and operated by the United States. But no such deduction follows from the fact that the Government aided in the construction of the Pacific Railroads, or that the State of New York maintains free tolls on the Erie Canal. Except, perhaps, presumptively, these facts have no bearing upon the subject. The establishment of the main proposition rests upon other grounds.

Real and Presumptive Proof.

Real evidence in law is that which is present to the senses, and circumstantial or presumptive evidence is that from which certain inferences may be drawn. For instance, in a murder case the knife, with which the stabbing was done, produced in court, would be real evidence. A series of happenings tending to prove that B held the knife and did the stabbing would be circumstantial evidence. This distinction holds good in the facts and considerations presented to prove a direct proposition. With reference to the Philippine Question which agitated the United States Senate in January, 1899, the defeat of Spain, the cession of the Islands to the United States, and the chaotic condition of local government in the Islands, were facts which had the force of real evidence. When it was asserted that the Filipinos were incapable of self-government, that was only an

inference resting upon circumstantial proof. In like manner, the claim of the anti-expansionists that annexation would be unconstitutional was inferential, without a decision of the Supreme Court upon the question. That annexation would benefit either the Filipinos or the Americans was purely inferential, resting upon presumptive evidence of more or less probability. And likewise, another claim that the inhabitants of that far-away country would adopt American civilization and flourish under it, was not a proposition sufficiently evident to be used in support of the subject proposition.

CHAPTER XIV

PREPARATION FOR PUBLIC SPEAKING (*Concluded*)

Arrangement of Material—Importance of Briefing—The Proposition, Introduction, Discussion, Conclusion—Meeting Objections—The Important Thought—Making the Speech—Thinking when in Action.

Arrangement of Material.

AS a first step in the arrangement of materials, complete the analysis of the subject. From the revision noticed in a preceding section, discard all irrelevant matter. Make the heads and sub-heads fit logically together, until the analysis becomes a perfect working model. The subject must now be thought through, and the proofs arranged under the proper headings. This is preparatory to the writing or briefing which is to follow. Let the work be conscientiously done, for upon it depends lucidity of statement and convincing argument. This is the framework, which, like the steel skeletons used to support modern high buildings, should be balanced in its proportions and strong in all its parts. Around the analysis group all the material accumulated—fact, statistics, appropriate ideas, and original thought. Illustration, description, narrative, or demonstration by example may

all be necessary to proof. All should be arranged in strictly logical and systematic order. Too much care cannot be taken in the arranging of the materials of public speech.

The first step of the complete analysis will now appear as follows:

A. The Canal is Necessary.

Illustration.

(*a*). For naval purposes — Would do away with the necessity of keeping a separate fleet in both oceans—Illustrated by the Spanish War—Trip of the *Oregon* —Sending supplies to Manila—To protect Hawaii and the Philippines.

(*b*). For the benefit of Commerce — Would shorten the routes and decrease the cost of transportation—Would increase trade with the Oriental countries—Would increase trade with South America — Southern coal in the Pacific—Lumber of the Pacific Slope in the Eastern market— Development of both coasts by reciprocal trade.

It is desirable to reduce the analysis to writing. If it is not to be used on the platform as a guide to the speaker, it must be used in the study to give direction to the arrangement of the discourse. The written analysis may take the form of a brief, beginning with the subject proposition, and including introduction, discussion, conclusion, and the peroration. The various parts of the analysis should be indicated by numbers, and

Importance of Briefing.

catch words may be used to suggest the topic to be considered at each point. The principal and subordinate propositions should be accompanied by written references, indicating what is the available material that bears upon each and where it may be found. When finished, the brief is a complete index of the subject, and is always available for reference. The brief also establishes the line of argument, or what the lawyers term the theory of the case, and it is the framework to which the necessary covering of proof and effective delivery is to be attached.

The Proposition. Every subject should be clearly determined and capable of statement in a distinct proposition. This is formally written down at the head of the analysis, and is the logical conclusion of the argument. But it may be neither wise nor desirable to state this proposition at the beginning of the address. It is not essential to proof or to eloquent speech, and may be left to the exigencies of treatment. Much would depend upon the sympathies of the audience and the purpose of the address. While it is essential to the preparation, it is optional with the speaker when or how he shall communicate his subject to his hearers.

The Introduction. The introduction of an address is designed to prepare the way for the discussion which is to follow. During its delivery the speaker and audience grow familiar with each other, and the minds of all are prepared to consider the subject which is to be elucidated. Consequently, the introduction may be purely explanatory or it may be

conciliatory. It may be inspired by the circumstances of the occasion or by the current of passing events. However, it should be intimately connected with the theme to be presented, and good sense would dictate that it be short, clear, and appropriate in all respects. In order that the speaker may know exactly what he is to introduce it is sometimes best to delay preparing this part of the address until the rest is completed.

" No man thinks more highly than I do of the patriotism, as well as abilities, of the very worthy gentlemen who have just addressed the House. But different men often see the same subject in different lights; and, therefore, I hope that it will not be thought disrespectful to those gentlemen, if, entertaining as I do, opinions of a character very opposite to theirs, I shall speak forth my sentiments freely and without reserve."

Illustrations of the Introduction.

" I address you, sir, with anxiety and distress of mind, with me, wholly unprecedented. The friends of this bill seem to consider it as the exercise of a common power; as an ordinary affair; a mere municipal regulation, which they expect to see pass without other questions than those concerning details. But, sir, the principle of this bill materially affects the liberties and rights of the whole people of the United States. To me it appears that it would justify a revolution in this country; and that, in no great length of time it may produce it. When I see the zeal and perseverance with which this bill has been urged along its parliamentary path, when I know the local interests and associated projects which combine to promote its success, all opposition to it seems mani-

festly unavailing. I am almost tempted to leave, without a struggle, my country to its fate."

"Sir,—This is not my maiden speech to the Oxford Union, therefore it is not upon that ground that I venture to claim your indulgence. I was warned before I came here—and what I have heard since does not alter the weight of that warning—that I must be prepared to face a decisively hostile majority. But, in spite of that, I confess I felt in coming here none of those misgivings which the great Master of Romance made Louis XI. feel when he was infatuated enough to put himself in the hands of Charles the Bold of Burgundy. I feel perfectly confident that I shall receive from gentlemen present the courteous and kindly attention which Englishmen seldom refuse, even to their political opponents."

"I am gratified, Mr. President, to see in the various propositions which have been made, such a universal anxiety to save the country from the dangerous dissensions which now prevail; and I have, under a very serious view and without the least ambitious feeling whatever connected with it, prepared a series of constitutional amendments, which I desire to offer to the Senate, hoping that they may form, in part at least, some basis for measures that may settle the controverted questions which now so much agitate our country. Certainly, sir, I do not propose now any elaborate discussion of the subject. Before presenting these resolutions, however, to the Senate, I desire to make a few remarks explanatory of them, that the Senate may understand their general scope."

"At the very threshold it is proper to define the terms I shall use and state the exact proposition I purpose to

maintain. A tariff is a tax upon imported goods. Like other taxes which are levied, it should be imposed only to raise revenue for the government. It is true that incidental protection to some industries will occur when the duty is placed upon articles which may enter into competition with those of domestic manufacture. I do not propose to discuss now how this incidental protection shall be distributed. This will be a subsequent consideration when the preliminary question has been settled as to what shall be the nature of the tariff itself."

The arrangement of material under this head will grow out of the answer to the question how to establish or illustrate the subject proposition. In the work of analysis all the answers to this question should be considered, and those that are relevant arranged in the order of their importance. Each constitutes a separate proposition to be stated, illustrated, and proved, and its relation to other parts of the discussion made clear. The material, which is to appear under each division, should be carefully selected, and the subordinate subjects must be developed with the same attention to detail which has been bestowed upon the primary proposition. Hence, information, fact, historical reference, or appeal to authority, should be arranged with special reference to lucid and cumulative proof. Each point should rest upon the solid foundation of consistency, so that the final proof shall stand securely against attack.

The Discussion.

Suppose the subject of the address to be the abolition of capital punishment, and the speaker is seek-

ing to establish the affirmative proposition. His argument, therefore, would take form as follows:

Illustration.

(*a*). Capital punishment is contrary to the spirit of civilization.

(*b*). Its abolition has been followed by satisfactory results. Cite Belgium, Finland, Holland, Russia, Michigan, Rhode Island, Maine.

(*c*). Capital punishment is contrary to sound morals. It is vindictive, does not protect society, does not prevent crime, is abhorrent to moral sense.

(*d*). Capital punishment is unjust. Criminals are so from heredity. Juries make mistakes—innocent men are executed. Men of influence and wealth escape. The poor man suffers. It is a brutal tradition from a brutal age.

As a structural part of the discourse the conclusion must naturally follow and grow out of the discussion.

The Conclusion.

It may be devoted to a *résumé* of the argument, ending in a formal statement of the original proposition. Such a recapitulation is desirable for purposes of clearness, and it may be used effectively in forcing the proof home upon the minds of the audience. The chief objection lies in the fact that, as a method, it is lifeless and cumbersome. It may repel intelligent auditors who have carefully followed the line of argument. Hence this form of conclusion is appropriate only when the discussion has been prolonged, or has been neces-

sarily abstruse. It was Cicero who suggested that if it were used at all, it should be so managed as to revive the recollection and to strengthen one's conception of the subject. The orator will find it of little use merely to repeat the analysis of his speech, as the auditor, if not convinced already, will not yield even to a logical statement of the truth.

"Upon the whole I beg leave to tell the House what is my opinion. It is, that the Stamp Act be repealed absolutely, totally, and immediately. That the reason for the repeal be assigned, viz., because it was founded on an erroneous principle. At the same time, let the sovereign authority of this country over the colonies be asserted in as strong terms as can be devised, and be made to extend to every point of legislation whatsoever; that we may bind their trade, confine their manufactures, and exercise every power whatsoever, except that of taking their money out of their pockets without their consent."

Illustration of Conclusion.

Disposing of objections is a form of conclusion which may be used with telling effect. It is not wise to interrupt the course of the argument, to anticipate every objection which may arise. There is usually some strong line of argument against the views presented by the speaker, lying in the minds of critical hearers. In the conclusion he may attack the citadel of this opposition, and by a few parting shots destroy it. The objection to be answered should be accurately measured, and the proofs against it such as to overwhelm it. Otherwise the task should not be under-

Objections.

taken. This form of conclusion is very effective, when the right opportunity offers and the argument is skilfully handled.

It is well illustrated in the speech of Thomas H. Benton, delivered in the United States Senate in 1837. A resolution had been introduced to expunge from the records a resolution, answering President Jackson in the matter of the removal of deposits of Government money from the Bank of the United States. The argument for the expunging resolution had been completed, and in the conclusion Mr. Benton turned aside to pay his respects to the opinion, prevailing in the Senate, that the Jackson Administration had been unsatisfactory to the country.

Illustration.

"Sir, I think it right, in approaching the termination of this great question, to present this faint and rapid sketch of the brilliant, beneficent, and glorious administration of President Jackson. It is not for me to attempt to do it justice; it is not for ordinary men to attempt its history. His military life, resplendent with dazzling events, will demand the pen of a nervous writer; his civil administration, replete with scenes which have called into action so many and such various passions of the human heart, and which has given to native sagacity so many victories over practised politicians, will require the profound, luminous, and philosophical conceptions of a Livy, a Plutarch, or a Sallust. This history is not to be written in our day. The contemporaries of such events are not the hands to describe them. Time must first do its office—must silence the passions, remove the actors, develop conse-

quences, and canonize all that is sacred to honor, patriotism, and glory. In after ages the historic genius of our America shall produce the writers which the subject demands—men far removed from the contests of this day, who will know how to estimate this great epoch, and how to acquire an immortality for their own names by painting, with a master's hand, the immortal events of the patriot President's life."

The exhortation is a form of conclusion often used by public speakers. It constitutes an appeal to duty, as a result of the truth developed in the discussion. The exhorter has a further advantage in offering opportunity for an impassioned peroration. It may be employed by the public speaker as a means of deeply stirring the emotions of his hearers just before dismissing them. It is particularly appropriate to the sermon, to the plea before a jury, and to the political speech. Exhortation.

"While the Union lasts we have high, exciting, gratifying prospects spread out before us, for us and our children. Beyond that I seek not to penetrate the veil. God grant that in my day at least that curtain may not rise! God grant that on my vision never may be opened what lies behind! When my eyes shall be turned to behold for the last time the sun in heaven, may I not see him shining on the broken and dishonored fragments of a once glorious Union: on States dissevered, discordant, belligerent; on a land rent with civil feuds, or drenched, it may be, in fraternal blood! Let their last feeble and lingering glance rather behold the gorgeous ensign of the Republic, now known and honored throughout the earth, still full high ad- Illustration.

vanced, its arms and trophies streaming in their original lustre, not a stripe erased or polluted, not a single star obscured, bearing for its motto no such miserable interrogatory as 'What is all this worth?' nor those other words of delusion and folly, 'Liberty first and Union afterward'; but everywhere, spread all over in characters of living light, blazing on all its ample folds, as they float over the sea and over the land, and in every wind under the whole heavens, that other sentiment, dear to every true American heart,—Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable!"

The Important Thought.

Another form of conclusion to be suggested is the amplification and emphasis of the important thought of the speech. To bring this out in a clear light in the closing words of the address helps to accentuate and to impress its truth. It also enables the speaker to put the capstone upon his argumentative arch. In public speeches, the purpose of which is exposition or enlightenment, no better form of conclusion can be chosen.

Illustration.

"In full confidence of this unalterable truth, I now, 'quod felix faustumque sit,' lay the first stone in the temple of peace; and I move you,

"That the colonies and plantations of Great Britain in North America, consisting of fourteen separate governments, and containing two millions and upward of free inhabitants, have not had the liberty and privilege of electing and sending any knights and burgesses, or others, to represent them in the high court of Parliament."

In the method here delineated the construction of a public address proceeds along the lines of reading and reflection in the study. It is fashioned on the intellectual forge of hard work. But public speaking to be effective must be preceded by some sort of practice. The accumulation of material and its logical arrangement are not sufficient. The speech in the last stage of preparation must be put into words. It is as unsafe to leave this task undone as to neglect study and thought in building up the discussion. Appropriate words, eloquent words, burning words, do not answer every man's beck and call. How shall adequate expression of the thought accumulated and arranged be effected ?

Practice before Speaking.

There are five answers to the question.

(*a*). The speaker may write out his speech in full, elaborating every point in detail, laying aside his manuscript when done.

Making the Speech.

(*b*). He may write his speech and read it to the audience.

(*c*). He may write the address and memorize it for delivery.

(*d*). He may deliver the speech extemporaneously.

(*e*). He may prepare a brief as a guide to the address and speak from it.

Each plan has its advantages, and any one of them may be superior to the others in treating a given subject or in speaking on a given occasion. There is little choice as to time or labor of preparation. Let the student decide for himself which

method he will follow, and then study the best means to accomplish the task imposed.

Practice.

But a better method still, because less laborious, is to go over the prospective address alone or in the presence of a friend, who may be willing to pose as a critic or adviser. If the audience is wholly imaginary, try to think it real. Speak as you expect to speak before the people you are to address. Put the same earnestness and enthusiasm into practice that you will put when facing the duty of the hour a week or more hence. Commence, and deliver the speech to the end without stopping. Pay no attention to mistakes or to forgotten thoughts until the effort is finished. Correct such errors on the next trial. By so doing you are only practising as you will be called upon to speak finally. There will be no opportunity then to stop, go back, and get a better start. Begin, proceed, finish,—let that be the invariable rule of practice. As a means to facility of expression and effectiveness in argument, no better plan can be pursued.

Thinking when in Action.

Learn to think while speaking. This is important to the student, for successful public speaking is first of all the fruit of clear thinking. If it is extemporaneous speaking, it is also extemporaneous thinking. Quintilian and other ancient writers on rhetoric insisted upon cultivating the talent of improvisation. While some of their pupils brought the art into disrepute, there was still a basis of truth in such teachings. What they sought to inculcate was, that the improvisator

should train his mind for his work; to put it briefly, that he should be always thinking of something to say, and studying how to express it in the most appropriate language. This is exactly the position of the public speaker. He is to bend the energies of his mind to the speech. By careful preparation he is to master the subject; by deep thought he is to put proposition and proof in logical order; and by writing and meditation he is to become thoroughly familiar with the analysis. But there remains the control of active and clear thought while speaking. This has been termed thinking when in action. It is an indispensable part of the working equipment of a public speaker. How it is best acquired will be fully discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER XV

EXTEMPORANEOUS SPEAKING

Extempore Speech—How to Acquire the Art—The Cultivation of Memory—The Speaking Vocabulary—How to Speak Freely—Words and How to Know Them—Prefixes and Suffixes in Word-Building—The Study of Synonyms—Value of the Dictionary to the Orator.

THE ability to speak extemporaneously, and at the same time effectively, is of the greatest practical value. It is useful in every walk of life and under all circumstances. Extemporaneous speaking includes all forms of speech in which the language is selected at the time of utterance. It ranges from the simplest conversational form to the most impassioned efforts of the orator. Comparatively few men are able satisfactorily to use extemporaneous speech in any form except the conversational, and not then with any high degree of effectiveness. Yet any person may do so by study and practice; neither of which methods need become burdensome.

Definition.

Aside from the physical qualifications of voice and bearing gained by study or bestowed by nature, we may presuppose the student of extempo-

Classification.

raneous speaking to have acquired a knowledge of rhetoric and, possibly, logic. Yet to become an extemporaneous speaker we find other qualifications requisite. The most important of these may be divided into five distinct and yet interdependent requisites. They are:

I. A Good Memory.
II. A Suitable and Usable Vocabulary.
III. The Power of Effectively Combining Words.
IV. The Faculty of Suggestion.
V. Imagination.

Memory.

The power to memorize accurately, quickly, and permanently is a necessary and important part of the equipment of the public speaker, as well as of every voice-user, irrespective of his vocation. With the single exception of alleged cures for stammering, no branch of the pedagogics of public speaking has been so fertile a field of fraud and deception.

Methods Classified.

There is no memory, whether it be extraordinarily defective or proportionately acute, that is not capable of improvement. In this all scientists agree. The difference of opinion does not arise on the possibilities of development, but on the methods by which the growth of memory is to be secured. For our purpose we may divide all plans for increasing the power of the memory into two classes. One of these we may call the natural method; the other the artificial

The natural method is open to all. It requires no "system" or teacher, and it is the only permanently successful means of cultivating the mem-

ory. All the leading specialists in memory culture have used it as a basis of their teaching. In the cultivation of the memory, the utility of a teacher is solely as a stimulus to the will-power—no more and no less. This is a genuine benefit, however, and the teacher is a necessity to persons of poorly developed will-power and deficient intellect, but to no other class of students.

Natural Method.

As in strengthening the physical powers, so in mental development, the basis of improvement is training. By the rational exercise of the memory we increase its powers. Take, then, as your first rule—Practise the registration and description of accurate perceptions.

Rule I.

In applying this rule to any particular object of memory, observe two corollaries.

Be sure that you have a clear perception of that object. This perception must not be general, vague, and approximate. It must not be of a *like* object, but of *the* object.

Corollary I.

Practise the exercise of obtaining clear perceptions. Do this, not only in the time reserved for such exercise, but always. Be constantly vigilant and you will acquire the habit of instant perception. To illustrate the existence of defective perception, study any object; for example, the view from a window, the contents of a show-case, or even a simple object, as a lamp or box. Master its detail thoroughly. Having done this, show the same object to a friend, ask him to look at it for a moment, then have him turn away. Now ask him to describe what he has seen. His descrip-

Clear Perception.

tion will demonstrate the fact that scarcely anyone has either complete or accurate perception. The fact existing, and the advantage of accurate perception conceded, the incentive to study is strong.

The method of study is simple. It consists of two parts. Learn to see accurately and to describe correctly. Practise description of perceived objects. This should be done orally in the position indicated on page 302.

The application of this method to conversation, reading, and thought presents no difficulty. Listen to a conversation and endeavor to reproduce it. To practise this, secure a printed or written model of conversation. Cause it to be read either by one person or by several in conversational style. Listen attentively, and after the selection is finished repeat it as nearly verbatim as may be. A friend should check your attempt from the copy. In no case use the same model twice. At first, choose short, simple selections, and repeat them immediately upon their completion. Gradually increase length and complexity of conversational models, and the time intervening between the delivery and repetition. In advanced pupils the conversation may run into thousands of words, and the intervening time be measured by days.

Conversation.

This form of exercise is most valuable, and may be applied to any description of vocal delivery.

As the ability to remember persons and associate them with their names is of vital importance, I give the following exercise which is not only simple but effective.

Remembering Names.

Upon first meeting, register as complete a perception as upon the examination of an impersonal object. One of the principal reasons for failure to remember names is faulty first perception. Practice is necessary in this, as in any other form of memorizing.

In memorizing written or printed language the same general rule applies. Pains must be taken to read every word and every letter of the word. Slovenly reading is a fertile source of defective memory. After reading a few words close the book and strive to recall each word, not as a word in general, but as you saw it; with its letters and diacritical marks, if any, and its position in the sentence and upon the line and page. This mention of context and association brings us to the second rule.

Written or Printed Discourse.

Connect the perception with other perceptions. Bring the new perception into relation with that which has already been established. Do not fill the mind with disjunctive thoughts. On the contrary, each thought should be part of a chain, and the chain should have no known beginning. That is, every event in life should be so connected with some other event that the mention of one would suggest the other. Yet all these links cannot be likened to parts of an endless chain. They form short chains hanging from a ring; each chain sliding freely on the ring, each through the ring having connection with its fellow, but each one free to move though held to its fellow. The ring is a life, the chain the events of each day.

Rule II.

Do not be content with registering an impression nor with recalling it once or twice. Frequently revert to it. Strive to make each recollection clear, and more detailed than its predecessor. Do not always recall the impression in the same way. Vary the associations that permit its recollection. For example: Imagine a friend living by the ferry, beside the bridge over which foot-passengers, electric and steam cars, as well as carriages, frequently pass, and near the elevated railway, that makes a connection at that point with the underground car lines and the tunnel from the other side of the river. Now, in this case you have choice of several routes and many means of conveyance. You may travel by electric, steam, or cable cars; you may ride, walk, drive, sail, or row. You may go over ground or under ground. In the same way you can approach by many ways an idea held in the memory, and you should use as many as possible. Corollary II.

In regard to the "systems" of memory culture, if one half the labor necessary to acquire the mnemonics that form the bases of these systems was expended in the natural method, the results would be more permanently satisfactory. But as teachers of memory-culture systems are necessary to persons of weak will-power, so are "systems," but neither teachers nor systems are needed by the well-balanced person able to devote the necessary will-power to the art of memorizing. Conclusion.

Vocabularies are of three kinds. The first is used

in thinking, the second in writing, and the third in speaking. With the first two classes we are not here concerned. The third class is of vital importance to our subject. Many men possess large vocabularies available in thinking or in expressing thought by writing. Yet most of these men, when speaking, are unable to command sufficient words to convey their thoughts clearly and effectively. The speaker must obtain and control a large vocabulary. All brilliant speakers possess this. Yet they are neither verbose nor redundant. They are even more concise than the speakers with limited vocabularies. A command of many words is not sought for the mere power of uttering a greater number of sounds, but the more accurately to express shades of meaning, the more fully to describe examples, and the more clearly to present argument.

A Suitable Vocabulary.

We must accept as one of the five requisites to success as an extemporaneous speaker, the possession and control of a large vocabulary. To enable the speaker to acquire this vocabulary the following method is suggested.

How Acquired.

Provide yourself with a good dictionary of the English language. The dictionary forms the basis of your work, but you should have a good book of synonyms, such as Smith's *Synonyms Discriminated*, or Soule's *Dictionary of English Synonyms*, and also a text-book on affixes, such as Haldeman's *Affixes to English Words*.

The dictionary is to be studied, not used for reference alone. A certain portion should be read each day. Unfamiliar words should be carefully studied,

checked, and reviewed from day to day until perfectly mastered.

The book on synonyms must be used in the same manner. Each word must be studied in its relation to other words.

The importance of the study of affixes is best shown by a tabulation of some of the richest prefixes, suffixes, and roots in the language.

TABLE OF AFFIXES.

Prefixes.		Roots.		Suffixes.	
un-	5,600	*fact, face*	640	-ly	2,000
in-im	2,900	*stand*	440	-ion	1,900
co-con	2,400	*position*	300	-ness	1,300
re-	2,200	*graphic*	200	-al	1,000
di- dis-	1,800	*logic*	200	-er	950
e- ex-	1,750	*ply*	200	-ous	900
ad-	1,600	*capable*	190	-ble	800
de-	1,600	*drag*	190	-ity	650
sub-	700	*detain*	180	-ary, etc.	600
pre-	700	*admit*	175	-a -e nce	600
pro-	600	*aspect*	175	-a -e nt	500
per-	350	*evident*	160	-ive	400
	22,200		3,050		11,600

There are over five hundred prefixes. Some modify a very few words; others modify as many as three hundred roots. The affixes given in above table are of great importance in word building. The student should memorize the affixes given therein.

Prefix and Suffix.

Having memorized the lists given, remembering that the earnest student will not cease his labor until all the affixes are mastered, we must consider the affixes more particularly. It may be stated in this connection that this more intensive study may well accompany the work of memorizing the lists. As an example of what may, and in most cases should, be learned about a single prefix or suffix I quote from the valuable work of Haldeman.

THE PREFIX:

"UN- *not; without; -less.* See IN- below.

"UNFIT *not* fit, without fitness; v. t. to deprive of fitness.

"UNFRUITFUL not producing fruit; fruitless; unproductive.

"Observing our faults in others, is sometimes unproper for our case.

"Christina, though uncrowned (having relinquished her crown) demurred on some points of court etiquette.

"Burke's phrase, nevertheless, must be allowed to be infinitely more unphilosophical, immoral, irreligious, uncivil, impolitic, inhuman, and insolent than either.

"Young uses—un-absurd, unask'd, unavoidable, unbelief, unbelieving, unborn, unbounded, unbrewed, uncaus'd, unconfin'd, unconfounded, unconscious, undebaucht, undesigned, undrawn, undrew, un-embittered, unexpected, unfading, unfaithful, unfashion'd, unfear'd, unfeign'd, unfelt, unintelligent, unlock, unmade, unmann'd, unmarr'd, unmerciful, unmixt, unpaid, unportion'd, unprecedented, unquench't, unrefunding, unrequested, unresolvable, unriddle, unripen'd, unroll'd,

unsound, unstretcht, unsubdu'd, untaught, untie, untill'd, untormented, unwilling, unwisely, unwisht, unwrought.

"'Th' illuftrius mafter of a name *unknown;*
Whofe worth unrivall'd, and unwitnefs'd loves.'

"'Unpeopled, unmannured, unprov'd, unprayf'd;'

"'All mourn the minstrel's harp unstrung,
Their name unknown, their praise unsung.'

"IN-, un- *not, without.*

"UN- or IN-CONSTANT, *not* constant; *without* or *wanting* constancy. UN-CROWNED (*adj.*) not crowned, without a crown; (*part.*) deprived of a crown. UNDO, to disarrange. UM-PIRE.

"UN- (or IN-) CONCEIVABLE -CONCLUSIVE -CONSTANT -COMPACT.

"IMMENSE (Mensus; Metior, to measure,) not measurable. UNCOLORED, not colored; without color.

"I-GNOBLE, not gnoble. Nobilis, Gnobilis; Gnosco, I know.

"EN-EMY, Inimicus, unfriendly. (Amicus, a friend.)

"I-GNOMINY, I-GNO-R-ANT, IMMODEST, ILLEGAL, IRREVERENCE.

"'Nay rather, vindictive perfons live the life of witches; who as they are mifchievous, so end they infortunate.'

"'Some lead a life unblamable and juft,
Their own dear virtue their unfhaken truft.'

"Obs. 1. The un- is intensive in unloose (Ang. onlesen, on- meaning *into, to*), unremorseless.

"Obs. 2. In some words un- has displaced the Latin in-, as in unambitious, ungenial, unhumbled, unfortunate. In- is used where assimilation is required, as un- is never assimilated.

"Obs. 3. 'There can be little doubt that *in, on, un,* ——, are all from one stock.'—*Webster.*

"Obs. 4. Un- is the preferable form, used almost exclusively in English, as in untemed, *untamed.* Latin has a bad feature in the use of IN-, not only for *into* (as in Induco, to lead *in*), but negatively, as in Inconstant, *not* constant; Invocatus, called upon, and *not* called upon; Immutatus, changed and unchanged;— and intensively, as in Inæquo, to make level; Inæstimabilis, *very* estimable; Ingemo, to groan; Infusco, to sully.

"Altho the definite Germanic un- is naturalized in the English un-, there is a tendency to retain the indefinite in-, which leads to the use of discrepancies like *unequal* and *inequality; unfailing* and *infallible;* causes the toleration of forms like *invaluable,* apparently used by Bp. Taylor for *not valuable,* or *not able to be valued;* and (as if ironically) by quacks in describing their nostrums; and it makes the spoken language obscure.

"'If it be (is) true, that the principall part of beauty, is in decent motion,'—*Bacon.*

"'The chriftian doctrine . . . makes our greateft happinefs here to lie *in dependence* of God's providence and contentment in our condition.'—*Stillingfleet.*

"'*In offensive operations,* the points which it is desirable thus to occupy, reduce themselves to . . . ,' &c. —*Westminster Review.*

"'Already the Richmond papers indulge *in offensive* criminations . . .'

"'In a word, all good and every evil are *in common* among them, and all work together *in harmonious* union for the good and defense of the whole.'

"'Sinners seek for delights only in *sensible* things.'

"'It is written throughout with great power and *in harmonious* language.'

"'A Chriftian's wit is *inoffenfive* light,
A beam that aids but never grieves the fight.'

"'The contents of the sheath are composed of a series of globules, arranged very regularly, their convexities causing the sheath to project *in definite* lines.'—*Wyman, Lectures on Comparative Physiology, 1849.*

"'Pollen . . . cohering *in definite* or *indefinite* waxy masses.'

"'I could scarcely realize the terrible event, and *in voluntarily* addressing the corpse, I muttered: "Are you really dead, Kozengo?"'

"'. . . the astonished spectators begin to believe that it has been trained to dance *in correct* time.'

"'The entire machine was now *in action*, every separate wheel was revolving.'"

THE SUFFIX:

This should be studied in the same manner as the prefix. To illustrate the method of study we will consider the suffix -ly.

"-LY, a. *like;* adv. *manner.*

"FRIENDLY like (in the manner of) a friend.

"HEARTILY in a hearty manner; with the heart engaged.

"Masterly, verily, truly, homely, elderly, freely, openly, richly, advisedly, boldly, northerly, duly, love-li-ly, sur-li-ly.

"Obs. 1. In daily, yearly, etc., -ly is frequentative.

"Obs. 2. In admirably, forcibly, etc., the suffix is -ble and -y.

"Obs. 3. In nobly the suffix is not -ly, but -y attached to -il of Nobilis.

"Obs. 4. -ly may be partly due to Danish -ledes, as in ligeledes, *likewise;* saa, *so;* saaldes, *thus.*

"Obs. 5. Chaucer uses costlewe (costly), and dronkelew (given to drink)."

Root Words.

We have next to consider the Root words. I have selected a list from the words commencing with the letter P. This series should be memorized. The student should make and memorize similar lists for other letters of the alphabet. As in the case of the affixes, the earnest student will seek to master the greatest possible number of roots. Careful study of each root word, even those at present familiar to the student, should be made.

ROOTS.

Pear, Par
Pass
Past
Peal
Pel or Pul
Pend
Pense
Pete, Peat
Plant
Plex

MAKING LISTS.

Write opposite each word all its forms and the meaning of each. It is not advisable to make long lists. Ten roots will be as many as the average student can thoroughly prepare for a recitation.

Practice in Combination.

The mastery of parts of words must be followed by practice in combining them. This is most effectively done by dividing your lists of roots and prefixes into as many parts as you propose to devote days to the study. Having made

the division, let nothing prevent the execution of the allotted task. This may be after the following plan. Choose a place free from interruption, and if possible so situated as to preclude the sound of your voice being overheard. Take the position described on page 302. If possible face a mirror in order that you may observe any departure from correct form. Using an ordinary speaking tone, and without the aid of notes recite the list of words set apart for the day's work. Then, without consulting notes, add to each prefix as many root words as possible. Then add to the combined prefix and root words as many suffixes as you can. All this should be done in the position indicated, and in the same tone. The exercise should be repeated again and again, until the work can be done smoothly, rapidly, and without appreciable mental effort.

Having formed all possible words, the next step in the acquisition of a vocabulary is the study of synonyms. This exercise is, practically, one of grouping the words acquired into collections of words expressing the same meaning. The best method of study is as follows: Use as a text-book Smith's *Synonyms Discriminated.* Divide its contents into any desired number of sections, for example, one hundred. This will give about seven pages to each lesson. The first lesson would then comprise the antonym, Abandon, with its synonyms, Forsake, Desert and Relinquish, and the antonyms Abandoned, Abase, Abasement, Abash, with their respective synonyms. In the intensive study of synonyms we should learn of the group

Synonyms.

comprising the words Abandon, Forsake, Desert, and Relinquish, the following facts:

"The etymological force of Abandon (Fr., *abandonner*, *a bandon*, *at liberty;* feudal Lat., *bandum*, *an order*, *decree;* see Brachet) has well-nigh disappeared from this word. To embandon or abandon was, primarily, to bring under the power of another; and as this would imply the surrender of all control on the part of the original possessor, it is easy to see how the consequential idea has in modern English become the primary, and then the exclusive meaning. To abandon is now, in the most comprehensive sense, to give up *finally and absolutely*, whether with or without transference of the thing abandoned to some person or power external to ourselves. A trace of the old meaning, that of placing beyond jurisdiction and so disclaiming possession, appears in Shakespeare.

"No praise or blame is absolutely expressed by the term abandon, which is one of the widest in the language, though it has a tendency to imply blame when used of persons without qualification. So to abandon friends sounds blameworthy, because under this simple expression the mind contemplates nothing but a deserted friendship. Yet it is right to abandon friends, if they betake themselves to what is dishonest or disgraceful. We may abandon persons or things; in particular, places, positions, ideas, opinions, hopes, expectations, offices, possessions, good or evil habits, as the case may be. But that which is abandoned is always a thing of consideration, not a thing of little value or a matter of petty detail. We may abandon wealth, but not a purse. Where loss or injury is entailed on the person abandoned, or the abandonment is a derilection of duty, this moral coloring belongs not to the force of the term, which is

essentially no more than that of *final leaving or surrender*, but to the circumstances of the case. It is only when all efforts to save his ship are hopeless that the captain abandons her to the rocks and waves. In times of early Christianity men were called upon to abandon houses, lands, and relatives in such a way as would be now not only uncalled for, but an unjustifiable desertion of them. We may observe that a two-fold idea seems inherent in abandonment. We may abandon directly or indirectly, either by actively transferring, or by avoiding and taking ourselves off. The former force was predominant in the old English, the latter in the new.

" ' See how he lies at random carelessly diffused,
As one past hope *abandoned*,
And by himself given o'er.'

" FORSAKE is the A. S. for *for-sacan*, meaning orig. to *oppose, object* (Bosworth). In usage it implies some degree of antecedent habituation or association which is given up. We forsake relatives to whom we were naturally bound, friends with whom we once associated, habits which we had contracted, opinions which we had entertained, places which we used to frequent. The cause of forsaking is altered taste or habit, variation of custom, alienated, or abated attachment. So, rhetorically, ' the blood forsook his cheek,' that is, left its wonted place. The term does not go beyond this breaking off of previous habit or association, the making that a matter of neglect or avoidance which before was matter of inclination and seeking; and, like abandon, implies in itself neither praise nor blame, which depend on the circumstances of the forsaking. Inasmuch as there is implied in forsake a former personal connection with ourselves, we are not said to forsake abstract forms of good. We forsake

houses, lands, friends, possessions, not wealth, station, or rank. These we are said to abandon or renounce. Persons on being forsaken by those who once loved them have sometimes abandoned themselves to despair.

" ' For wele or wo she nill him not *forsake.*'

" To DESERT (Lat., *deserere ; to forsake or abandon ; de and serere, to join or bind together*, as opposed to *asserere, to fasten*—fasten hand to hand and so *assert* a claim) is applicable to persons, places, causes, principles, or undertakings in conjunction with others. We abandon but do not desert efforts or undertakings which are purely our own, and in which we owe no obligation or allegiance to others. The term desert always implies blame except when used of *localities*. To desert a person, a principle, or a cause, *e. g.*, is by the force of the term, blameworthy; for it involves the abandonment of sympathy, help, countenance, protection, effort, where these were our bounden duty, and where the contrary involves a breach of trust, fidelity, honor, or natural obligation. Not so to desert a locality, which may be indifferent, justifiable, or compulsory. It was from overlooking the fact that *places* might be deserted that some have laid it down that all desertion is disgraceful. ' A deserted fortress,' a ' deserted village.' On the other hand it is opprobrious in the following, where the word land means more than locality:

" ' No more excuses or delays. I stand
In arms, prepared to combat hand to hand,
The base *deserter* of his native land.'

" Like forsake, desert implies some degree of previous habituation and association, but the bond broken in for-

saking is that of attachment, in deserting, duty; hence we are not said to desert what there was no moral obligation to adhere to, as, *e. g.*, a statement, an expression, or a mere opinion; but principles which we were bound to support as being pledged to maintain them. Desertion involves the withdrawal of active co-operation, forsaking of sympathetic association. Desert is more purely voluntary than forsake. We may forsake under a feeling of imperative duty, our inclinations giving way to motives which our reason dares not discard; but we desert when we dislike our duty, or are prevailed upon by some external preference or allurement to escape from it.

"To RELINQUISH (Lat., *relinquere*) is to give up under some influence, power, or physical compulsion. We relinquish as an act of prudence, judgment, or necessity that which, had we been left to ourselves, we should have continued to hold. The act of relinquishment may of course prove subsequently to have been necessary or unnecessary, wise or unwise. A wounded hand may be *compelled* to relinquish its grasp. In matters moral I relinquish my scheme on finding it impracticable, or my opinion on finding it untenable, or my hope on finding it vain. Some degree of previous struggle with ourselves is gone through before we finally resolve to relinquish, or some external influence is brought to bear upon us which induces us to do so.

"'The Disdaine met him, and brought to him from her Majesty letters of revocation with commandment to *relinquish* for his own part the intended attempt.'

"It may be observed that abandon and desert express more positive acts of the mind than forsake and relinquish. He who abandons has finally resolved, he who forsakes has undergone change of mind, he who

deserts has sacrificed principle or duty, he who relinquishes has ceased to hope or to endeavor. As the others are applicable both to things and persons, so relinquish belongs to things alone. In troublous times men have sought to preserve their treasure by concealing it under the earth; if, after a while, it should be discovered by another, the law will not allow him to assume on the part of the original owner an intention to abandon it. Prosperity quickly raises about us a crowd of flatterers, who would be the first to forsake us in time of adversity. It is an aggravation of misfortune, if one who had long professed attachment should not only capriciously forsake us but also desert us in a moment of difficulty and danger. How often do we engage ourselves in pursuits which bring us far more anxiety and labor than profit or pleasure, which yet from habit or some other cause we cannot persuade ourselves to relinquish."

Study the Dictionary.

The dictionary is the most valuable text-book in the library of the student of public speaking. It is necessary that every student should own a modern edition of a standard dictionary. For practical use the one-volume editions are to be preferred. A dictionary containing about a thousand octavo pages is large enough.

In the study of extemporaneous speaking, whether it be conversational or oratorical, the dictionary has three uses. First, as a book of reference; second, as a book of synonyms; third, as a treatise on parts of the words. For the average student it will furnish all necessary information, and displace special books on synonyms, affixes, and root words. But to the

student determined to excel in the art of extemporaneous speaking it will not be the only book, but a valuable auxiliary.

In using the dictionary as a text-book the following method of study is recommended: The volume should be divided into sections of suitable length. Each section should form a lesson. The student should study and memorize the exact meaning and etymology of each word in the section assigned for the day's work. The synonyms of the word and their meanings should also be learned. The correct accentuation and pronunciation should be acquired. After a thorough study of the words the student will recite the entire list of words and all he has learned about them. In this work the directions in the preceding section must be followed. It is advantageous to study in company, one person checking and correcting the faults of his companion. It must be borne in mind that in all word study, great exactness of statement is a requisite to success. Avoid slovenly work. Follow the text. In all study, constant reviews are necessary, and the greatest orators have been the closest students. Pitt, Curran, Chatham, and many others reviewed the entire dictionary every year.

Method of Study.

CHAPTER XVI

EXTEMPORANEOUS SPEAKING *(Continued)*

How to Use Words—Exercises for Daily Practice—Methods of Combination—Studies in Selection—Thinking while Speaking—Suggestion—How to Acquire Forcible Style—Word Pictures—Topics for Extemporaneous Speaking.

WE have thus far been studying the materials forming the foundations for extemporaneous speaking. We will now put them into service, uniting them into a solid base upon which to rest our system.

Word Lists.

From the words formed in the exercise in which you combined affixes with roots, form lists containing twenty words. Select in the second case twenty antonyms in order from your book on synonyms, or twenty important words from your dictionary. Words must be taken in order without regard for meanings or qualities. Write these words. Memorize the lists. You will, of course, remember the synonyms and meanings of selected words. It is well to prepare the lists to cover one week or a longer period. But the words selected for each day need not be memorized until

that day. A model series of lists for one week would be as follows:

I. Abandon.

Synonyms: Forsake, Desert, Relinquish.

Meaning: As in dictionary or book on synonyms. Method of Study.

II. Abandoned.

Synonyms: Profligate, Reprobate, Unprincipled, Depraved.

Meaning: As in dictionary or book on synonyms.

WORD LIST I

ABACK, back, backward, rearward, regressively, to the rear.

ABAFT, aft, astern, behind, back, rearward, in the rear.

ABALIENATION, alienation, transfer, demise, conveyance.

ABANDON, leave, relinquish, quit, forsake, desert, evacuate, drop, abjure, forswear, give over, cast off, retire from, withdraw from.

ABANDONED, relinquished, deserted, forsaken, cast away, rejected, discarded, given up, given over, cast off, cast aside, thrown overboard, demitted.

ABANDONMENT, abandoning, relinquishment, desertion, derelection.

ABASE, depress, detrude, lower, reduce, drop, sink, stoop, cast down, let down, throw down, let fall.

ABASEMENT, depression, detrusion, reduction, lowering, fall, deterioration, degradation, debase-

ment, degeneracy, degeneration, vitiation, perversion, depravation.

ABASH, shame, mortify, confuse, confound, disconcert, discompose, cow, humiliate, humble, snub, put to shame, make ashamed, put down, put out of countenance, take down, send away with a flea in one's ear.

ABASHMENT, confusion, shame, mortification, embarrassment.

ABATE, lessen, diminish, decrease, reduce, lower, relax, slacken.

ABATEMENT, diminution, decrease, decrement, lessening, mitigation, assuagement, extenuation, remission, moderation.

ABATTOIR, slaughter-house, slaughter-pen, shambles.

ABBEY, monastery, convent, cloister, priory, nunnery.

ABBREVIATE, shorten, curtail, reduce, contract, retrench, condense, compress, epitomize, cut short, cut down.

ABBREVIATION, shortening, curtailment, contraction, reduction, condensation, compression, brief, compend, compendium, abstract, epitome.

ABDICATE, resign, surrender, cede, forego, renounce, relinquish, abandon, quit, vacate, give up, part with, lay down, renounce all claim to.

ABDICATION, abdicating, resignation, surrender, renunciation, abandonment.

ABDUCTION, withdrawing, withdrawal, drawing away, withdrawment.

ABERRATION, wandering, rambling, diverging, erratic, out of the right way.

WORD LIST II

BABBLE, prattle, jabber, chatter, gibber, talk inarticulately.

BABE, infant, baby, nursling, little one.

BABEL, confusion, disorder, tumult, din, discord, jargon, clamor, hubbub, hurly-burly.

BACCHANAL, reveller, carouser, bacchanalian, roysterer, debauchee, bacchant.

BACKWARD, unwilling, reluctant, loath, disinclined, indisposed, wavering, hesitating.

BAD, evil, ill, baneful, baleful, deleterious, pernicious, mischievous, noxious, hurtful, injurious, detrimental, unwholesome.

BADGE, token of office, shield of office, official star or emblem.

BAGGAGE, luggage, personal effects, travelling effects, traps.

BALANCE, pair of scales, equipoise, equality of weight.

BALD, without hair, hairless, destitute of hair.

BALDRIC, shoulder-belt, bawdrick.

BALL, globe, sphere, round body, round or rounded or roundish part.

BALLAST, weight, ballasting, filling, packing.

BALM, ointment, fragrant or precious ointment, unguent.

BAN, proclamation, edict.

BAND, cord, chain, fetter, manacle, shackle, bond.

BANDIT, outlaw, robber, brigand, freebooter, footpad, highwayman, marauder.

BANG, beat, thump, pound, strike, knock, maul,

pommel, thrash, cudgel, handle roughly, deal roughly with.

BANK, mound, knoll, rising ground, heap, pile, tumulus, dike.

BANNER, flag, standard, streamer, ensign, pennon, colors.

WORD LIST III

CABAL, clique (for some sinister purpose), junto, coterie, set, party, gang, faction, combination, league, confederacy, camarilla.

CABIN, hut, hovel, shed, cot, cottage, humble dwelling.

CADENCE, tone, intonation, modulation of the voice.

CAITIFF, villain, wretch, miscreant, coward, sneak, traitor, knave, rascal, scoundrel, mean fellow, vagabond, bezonian.

CAJOLERY, deceit, deception, imposture, imposition.

CALAMITY, disaster, misfortune, catastrophe, mishap, mischance, reverse, visitation, trial, blow, stroke, trouble, affliction, adversity.

CALCULATION, expectation, anticipation, contemplation, prospect.

CALL, cry, outcry, voice.

CALM, still, compose, hush, smooth, allay, lull, becalm, tranquillize.

CANAILLE, populace, rabble, mob, the vulgar, the crowd, vulgar herd, low people, lowest class of people.

CANDIDATE, aspirant, solicitant.

CANDOR, fairness, impartiality, justness, freedom from prejudice, freedom from bias.

CANON, rule, law, formula, formulary, standard.
CANT, whining talk, pious prating, affected piety.
CANVASS, debate, discuss, dispute, agitate.
CANYON, gorge, ravine, gulch.
CAPABLE, qualified, suited, adapted, fitted.
CAPACIOUS, spacious, ample, large, wide, broad, extensive, roomy, expanded, comprehensive.
CAPITAL, chief, principal, leading, essential, cardinal, first in importance.
CAPITALIST, investor, man of means, holder of surplus wealth, person of large resources.

WORD LIST IV

DAB, strike, slap, box.
DAFT, stupid, silly, foolish, delirious, insane.
DAGGER, poniard, dirk, stiletto.
DAINTY, delicious, savory, nice, delicate, tender, palatable, luscious.
DALE, vale, valley, bottom, dell, glen, dingle.
DAMAGE, injury, harm, hurt, detriment, mischief, loss.
DAME, mistress, matron, lady, madam.
DAMP, moisture, vapor, fog, dampness, dank.
DAMSEL, maiden, maid, girl, lass, miss, young lady.
DANCE, step rhythmically, move to music, take part in a dance.
DANGER, peril, hazard, risk, venture, jeopardy.
DARE, venture, presume, make bold, have courage, be bold enough.
DARLING, favorite, beloved, dear, precious, much loved.
DATA, facts, premises, given conditions.

DATE, time, epoch, era, age.
DAWN, break, begin to be light, grow light.
DAZZLE, brightness, brilliancy, splendor, dazzling light.
DEAL, quantity, degree, extent.
DEBASEMENT, deterioration, vitiation, adulteration, perversion.
DEBATE, disputation, controversy, discussion.

WORD LIST V

EAGER, longing, yearning, greedy, anxious, impatient, keenly desirous.
EARN, gain, get, acquire, win, obtain, procure.
EARNEST, ardent, zealous, eager, fervent, fervid, glowing, animated.
EARTH, world, globe, terrestrial ball, terraqueous orb.
EASE, rest, repose, quiescence.
EBB, regression, regress, retrocession, reflux, return.
ECHO, reverberation, reflected sound, repercussion of sound.
ÉCLAT, acclamation, applause, plaudit, burst of applause.
ECLIPSE, darken, obscure, dim.
ECONOMICS, science of wealth, method of developing public wealth, plutology, political economy.
ECSTASY, trance, suspension of external sense.
ECTYPE, close or exact copy, reproduction.
EDGE, border, rim, brim, margin, verge, brink; beginning or end, opening or close.
EDITION, issue, impression, number printed at once.
EDUCATION, training, teaching, tuition, schooling,

instruction, discipline, cultivation, nurture, breeding, development.

EFFECT, consequence, result, issue, event.

EFFICACY, potency, power, strength, force, efficiency, energy, vigor, virtue.

EFFIGY, image, figure, statue, representation, likeness, portrait.

EFFORT, endeavor, attempt, trial, essay, exertion, struggle, strain.

EFFULGENCE, brilliancy, lustre, splendor, brightness, radiance, refulgence.

WORD LIST VI

FABLE, story, tale, parable, allegory, myth, legend.

FABULIST, fabler, writer of fables.

FACT, incident, event, occurrence, circumstance, act, deed, performance.

FACULTY, power, capability, ability, capacity, endowment, property, quality.

FADE, vanish, disappear, evanesce, pass away, be seen no more.

FAIL, omission, neglect, failure, delinquency.

FAITH, belief, credence, credit, trust, assurance, confidence, dependence, reliance.

FALLACY, illusion, deception, deceit, delusion, mistake, error, misconception, misapprehension.

FALSITY, falsehood, want of truth, inconformity to fact or truth.

FAME, rumor, report, bruit, hearsay.

FANCY, imagination, pleasing conceit, happy conception, ideal image.

FARCE, burlesque, caricature, travesty, parody, after-piece, comedy.

FASCINATION, enchantment, spell, charm, witchery, magic, sorcery.

FATE, destiny, fatality, inevitable necessity, destination.

FAULT, defect, blemish, flaw, imperfection, failing, weakness, frailty, moral defect.

FEAR, alarm, dread apprehension, fright, terror, horror, dismay, consternation, panic.

FEAT, act, deed, exploit, achievement.

FEE, pay, compensation, remuneration.

FEINT, pretence, blind, make-believe, false appearance.

FELICITY, bliss, blissfulness, happiness, blessedness.

How to Use Words. Having memorized the word-list for a given day, and having mastered the synonyms and meanings of each word, discard all notes or aids. Take Initial position, and using a full, round tone of sufficient volume to fill the room devoted to your practice, proceed as follows:

Exercise I. Make a sentence containing one of the words in the list for the day. Illustration: I will *abandon* you. After a little practice incorporate several words, without regard for their order on list, into a short statement. Illustrations: I will *abandon* you if you do not *abase* yourself and *abjure* your heresy. You cannot *abide* here to *abase* me by your contumacy. I *abhor* the practices which your *ability* should place you *above* and cause you to *abolish.*

Formulate an address or statement in which every word on list is incorporated. **Exercise II.**

Incorporate every word and all its synonyms. **Exercise III.**

The exercises should be continued until each word and its synonyms are so familiar that no hesitation occurs in the attempt to introduce them. The student must not be discouraged if his first attempts result in failure. Persevere with Exercise I. Master it before proceeding to II. Remember that III. requires a high degree of proficiency, and you may not attain it until months of effort have passed. The first exercise is the basis of II. and III. and should receive patient care.

From a variety of short sentences eliminate an important word. Fill the blank thus created with an appropriate word. Replace this word with another, until your vocabulary is exhausted. The work must be done quickly, and in all cases aloud. The speaker should stand in the Initial position before a mirror, and use a written or printed list. **Exercise IV.**

1. "An eel held by the tail is not ."
2. "Eggs and oaths are ."
3. "Bad eyes never see any ."
4. "The greatest mischief you can do to the envious is to ." **Illustration.**
5. "Better small fish than ."
6. "Force is no ."
7. "A constant guest is ."
8. "Hear, see and ."
9. "The the tree riper richer cobbler his thumb."

10. "Man into world bare
He through with and care,
When dies goes Lord where
But well , does there."

11. "A deaf and a blind are always a happy ."

12. "No man can two ."

13. "Act so in the that you not fear who stand on the ."

14. "Weak united strong."

15. "Not to advance is to ."

16. "There is no like adversity."

17. "The worst often the best ."

18. "It is better to seek at the than at the ."

19. "Secure the three , virtue, and happiness, they will serve as a in age."

20. "Action from , from middle age, from the aged."

21. "It is a great of life to air well."

22. "There is no fir so it does not to become a ."

23. "It is best to trust to two ."

24. "Anger makes a man and a poor man ."

25. "He puts up with small to gain results."

26. "If you are an anvil be ; if you are a strike hard."

27. "Applause is the of noble minds."

28. "Act honestly and act ."

29. "Action is eloquence and the eyes of the ignorant more learned than the . ."

30. "Action is the proper fruit of ."

31. "Action must be founded on ."

32. "Brave actions never want a ."
33. "Good actions carry their warrant with ."
34. "Three helping one another bear the burthen of ."
35. "Advisers are not the ."
36. "No advice like a ."
37. "The afflicted person is ."
38. "He that buys buys many stones."
39. "But he that buys buys nothing else."
40. "A wise man associating with the becomes an ; a dog travelling with good becomes a being."
41. "Some are atheists only in fair ."
42. "Avarice is never ."
43. "The avaricious man is always in ."
44. "A bachelor's bed is the ."
45. "A bad thing never ."
46. "Beauty draws us with a single ."
47. "When bees are old they need no ."
48. "Beggars and borrowers must not be ."

Exercise V.

The next exercise differs from IV. in the degree of difficulty attending its use. Select short stories or speeches, reduce them to a skeleton form, as has been done in the familiar selection given below. Fill the blanks according to the directions given in the last exercise. The student must remember that no attempt should be made to use the words that originally filled the blanks. Two methods of preparing the skeletons are used. One is to write the skeleton and fill the blanks. The second method is one of substitution. The selection is read or recited, and certain marked

words are replaced by others at the speaker's discretion. The first method is the more useful and leads directly to the cultivation of the imagination, which is the next step to perfection in the art of extemporaneous speaking.

Illustration.

THE RULE OF AMERICAN CONDUCT

The Conduct us, to
nations, our relations,
as little as
have already en-
gagements, fulfilled good
stop.
Europe of interests,
have none, remote
she engaged
concerns. it must be unwise im-
plicate ties,
ordinary politics,
combinations of her
enmities.
Our situation
enables different course.
If people, govern-
ment, not far off when
defy injury annoyance
take such will cause
we may at times be
respected; belligerent impossi-
bility acquisitions
lightly hazard provocation;
choose or our
guided justice counsel.

Follow the directions for delivery already given. Then from the thoughts conveyed by the following maxims and proverbs, construct a connected address under each head given below. Continue the exercise with sentences of your own selection. **Exercise VI.**

TALE BEARING:

A dog that fetches a bone will carry one.
Beware of the tale-bearer.
Put no faith in tale-bearers.
Tale-bearers are commonly a sort of half-witted men. **Illustrations.**

IRON:

Iron long fired becomes steel.
Iron may be rubbed so long that it gets heated.
Iron not used soon rusts.
Iron or brass, let nothing pass.
It is bad iron in which there is no steel.
The command of iron soon gives a nation command of gold.

INDISCRETION:

Avoiding the rain, he met a tempest.
He fled from the sword and hid in the scabbard.
He wishes to hide his footprints, and yet walks on snow.

MAIN CHANCE:

Be careful of the main chance.
Have a care of the main chance.
He has an eye to the main chance.
Look to the main chance.

MALICE:

He that keeps malice harbors a viper in his breast.
Hot men harbor no malice.
Malice drinketh its own poison.
Malice is mindful.
More malice than matter.

MAN:

A great man's entreaty is a command.
A great man must be happy in a state of slavery as well as in a state of freedom.
A man cannot live by the air.
A man in distress or despair does as much as ten.

MEANS:

The means that Heaven yields must be embraced and not neglected.
To live according to one's means is honorable; not to do so is dishonorable.
Use the means and God will give the blessing.
Use the means and trust to God for the blessing.

MEDDLING:

Every fool will be meddling.
He who tastes every man's broth sometimes burns his mouth.
Meddle not with dirt; some of it will stick to you.
No good ever comes of minding other men's matters.

MEMORY:

A man often admits that his memory is at fault but never his judgment.
All complain of want of memory but none of want of judgment.

Memory is the first of faculties that age invades.
Though lost to sight, to memory dear.

MERIT:

A man who displays his own merit is a fool, and a man who does not know it, is a fool.
Merit is sure to rise.
True merit is like a river; the deeper it is the less noise it makes.
True merit, like the pearl inside the oyster, is content to remain quiet until it finds an opening.

MIND:

A mind content both crown and kingdom is.
A willing mind makes a light foot.
Out of sight, out of mind.
The mind is the man.

MIRTH:

Always merry is seldom rich.
Be merry and wise.
In the time of mirth take heed.
The end of mirth is the beginning of sorrow.

MISCHIEF:

He prepares evil for himself who plots mischief for others.
He that is disposed for mischief will never want occasion.
Many a one is good because he can do no mischief.
Mischief comes soon enough.

MISFORTUNES:

It is a great art to laugh at your own misfortunes.
Misfortune does not always come to injure.

Misfortune is a good teacher.
Misfortunes when asleep are not to be wakened.

MONEY:

A man without money is like a ship without sails.
All-powerful money gives birth and beauty.
Give me money, not advice.
Money is a sword that can cut even the Gordian knot.

MOTHER:

A mother's heart is always with her children.
A mother's love changes never.
A mother's love is best of all.
Mother's truth keeps constant youth.

NAME:

A famous name will never die.
An ill wound may be cured, not an ill name.
To get a name can happen to but few.

NEIGHBOR:

A good neighbor is a precious thing.
A great man and a great river are often ill neighbors.
Every man's neighbor is his looking-glass.
There are three bad neighbors: great rivers, great lords, and great roads.

Choice of Words.

This subject, as well as the kindred topics of Number of Words, Arrangement, and the like, do not come within the scope of this work. They are within the province of rhetoric, and have been ably and exhaustively treated by writers in that field. I presuppose in all my readers a knowledge of rhetoric and an acquaintance with English grammar. Some of them, perhaps, have not had sufficient training in English. If this be the

case, let me urge them to review the English grammar, and then undertake the study of rhetoric as collateral to the study of public speaking.

Although we cannot profitably trespass upon the domain of rhetoric, we must treat of the imaginative power and how to develop it. A good vocabulary and the power of imagination, backed by a working knowledge of rhetoric, a well-trained voice, and comprehensive knowledge of the subject, thoroughly equip the extemporaneous speaker.

So far we have considered the acquisition of a usable vocabulary. But something besides words is necessary to the success of any speaker. Thought and invention are treated in chapters on Debate, but no space is given to suggestion. By suggestion, I mean the mental picture that a single word or a combination of words brings to your mind. Too many speakers treat words as they would bricks, planks, or gravel. The word is used because it is one usually chosen in a certain connection and not because of its peculiar fitness for the position. To some persons words convey no picture, they are not vital with life but are dead forms. No speaker can be truly great, unless his mind is so trained as to resolve a word into its elemental inceptions. He must also possess the power to describe with a word or two the pictures that make up the Book of Life.

Suggestion.

I utter the word *station*. What does it suggest to you? Can you in an instant picture to yourself a railway station? Do you see a deserted or an active scene? In your men-

Method.

tal picture are the trains leaving or arriving, or is the station deserted? What is your mental image?

At first your picture may be indistinct, lacking in detail, slow in forming and transitory. Constant effort and the most scrupulous attention to detail will bring success. Do not cease your effort until the picture comes like a flash. Do not cease your effort until the smallest detail is clear. In the picture called up by the word *station*, what should you see? If the station is a small country stopping place, you should see the buildings and all their details, the platform, its occupants, the roadbed; you should note the condition of the weather, the occupations of the railway employees, and all the hundred and one things that make up a rural station.

The mental image is but the first step in our exercise. The next is to take the Initial position and, following the vocal directions before given, proceed to describe the image. Do this carefully, with painstaking detail and in a pleasing manner. It is important in this, as in all exercises, that you use the best English at your command. Many students err in this particular, and by slovenly rhetoric mar the effect of their practice. No definite number of repetitions can be stated as a rule. It is certain, however, that each picture should be recalled, till it comes instantly and complete in every detail. As with the recollection so with the description. Seek ease, smoothness and accuracy.

ILLUSTRATIVE WORD LIST

Steamer	Horse	Atlantic City
Furnace	Hansom	Yellowstone Park
Beach	Football Game	Atlantic Ocean
River	Fishing	Noon
Chimney	Rifle	Sunrise
Electric Car	Battleship	Home
Sunset	Rain	Death
Moon	Stork	Sleep

This word list is suggestive. Any word may be used. The student should add to the list. It is well to begin with familiar objects.

Having mastered the first part of the exercise, we will pass to the second. Select striking items from the newspapers—For example:

"BUFFALO, WYO., Feb. 1.—The wife and daughter of J. E. Yost have been found frozen to death. They started from town to their ranch, a few miles distant, in the face of a blizzard, became bewildered, and lost their way."

"SYRACUSE, N. Y., Feb. 1.—The Third United States Infantry, from Fort Snelling, Minn., passed through Syracuse to-day on the way from Fort Snelling to New York, where the transport *Sheridan* will be taken for Manila. The regiment is travelling in four trains over the New York Central Railroad. The first train arrived here at 8.20 o'clock this morning, and left at 9 o'clock. The other trains went East about noon."

"YOUNGSTOWN, OHIO, Feb. 1.—The press mill of the Ohio Powder Company's works, located about four miles north of this city, exploded with terrific force shortly

before noon, killing two employees, David Evans and Daniel Davis, and totally demolishing the building and machinery."

Detail Work.

Describe in the manner indicated the pictures that these items convey to your mind. In doing so take each clause by itself. If you cannot at once describe the picture originating from each clause, or if the picture does not form readily, take a word at a time. Remember that clear detail is required. Select items for your use. Seek to gain the habit of calling up pictures as you read. But in all exercises the description must be spoken, not thought over. Speak as you think. Do not confine yourself to one class of topics. Cultivate the study of the beautiful, the romantic, the pathetic. Work upon such selections as:

"Go forth beside the waters, and along
The chamois paths, and through the forests go;
And tell, in burning words, thy tale of wrong
To the brave hearts that 'midst the hamlets glow.
God shall be with thee, my beloved!—away!
Bless but thy child, and leave me,—I can pray!"

"'But alas! that we should go'—
Sang the farewell voices then—
'From the homesteads warm and low,
By the brook and in the glen!'"

"But woe for that sweet shade
Of the flowering orchard trees,
Where first our children played
'Midst the birds and honey-bees!"

"Oh, open the door, some pity to show,
Keen blows the northern wind;
The glen is white with the drifted snow,
And the path is hard to find."

"The Stag at eve had drunk his fill,
Where danced the moon on Monan's rill,
And deep his midnight lair had made
In lone Glenartney's hazel shade:
But, when the sun his beacon red
Had kindled on Benvoirlich's head,
The deep-mouth'd blood-hounds' heavy bay
Resounded up the rocky way,
And faint, from farther distance borne,
Were heard the clanging hoof and horn."

"For chiefs, intent on bloody deed,
And vengeance, shouting o'er the slain,
Lo! high-born beauty rules the steed,
Or graceful guides the silken rein."

"This is the forest primeval. The murmuring pines and the hemlocks,
Bearded with moss, and in garments green, indistinct in the twilight,
Stand like Druids of eld, with voices sad and prophetic,
Stand like harpers hoar, with beards that rest on their bosoms.
Loud from its rocky caverns, the deep-voiced neighboring ocean
Speaks, and in accents disconsolate answers the wail of the forest."

TOPICS FOR EXTEMPORANEOUS SPEECHES

Class A. A description of some place or thing with which you are familiar. Illustration: The street on which you live. The most beautiful picture you have seen. The sunset of the last clear day. The stars at night.

Class B. A story about some event in your life. Illustration: How you learned to swim. Your first game of football. Your first business venture. An adventure in the woods.

Class C. An exposition or explanation of some familiar subject. Illustration: The construction and use of your tools of trade or instruments of profession. Contents and use of a favorite book. The value of property owned by you. The literary status of an author. The methods of playing your favorite game.

Class D. An attack on an existing abuse or misuse of power. Defence of a person unjustly accused.

Exercise VII. Choose a topic suggested by those mentioned under Class A. Think over the subject, and without the use of paper seek to marshal all your information upon the subject. Having gained command of your knowledge, take your pen and prepare a short analysis (page 243) of the subject. Having done so, lay the plan aside and follow the directions given on page 272, proceed to speak on the subject, following, as far as you are able, the synopsis prepared, but which you must not use while speaking. Upon finishing the speech, con-

sult your plan and note departures from it. Revise plan if you can improve it. Repeat speech, and again compare it with synopsis. Continue this practice until you learn to adhere to your plan in all important points. Then take another topic in the same class and form a speech upon it. Having mastered one class, proceed to the next, in each case using the plan of written synopsis.

Select a topic from which to speak extemporaneously. The following list is intended to be suggestive. **Exercise VIII.**

TOPICS

Has England contributed more to European civilization than has France?

Did the Magna Charta do more for the advancement of civil liberty than the Declaration of Independence?

Was Webster a greater orator than Clay?

Is it probable that England will ever become democratic in government and in society?

Is England likely to continue a nation as long as the United States?

Should the national capital be removed to a more central position?

Should capital control labor?

Should convict labor be allowed to compete with labor in general?

Should the government establish post-office savings banks?

Should education have a practical aim?

Does a collegiate education contribute to one's fitness for a business life ?

Should a university undertake the moral guidance of its students ?

Should secret societies be permitted in colleges ?

Do newspapers contribute more than books to general intelligence ?

Does the use of illustrations in a discourse have more influence than does argument ?

Has music more power over men in general than has oratory ?

Has the philosophy of Plato been a help to theology ?

Is the influence of the mind on the body greater than the influence of the body on the mind ?

Is the idea of right ultimate ?

Is utilitarianism a true theory of ethics ?

Is there a science of religion ?

Is the inerrancy of the Bible essential to its Divine authority ?

Has philosophizing in religion been helpful in its promotion ?

Is the power of the pulpit on the wane ?

Is it better to meet a sceptic by argument or by an appeal to his conscience ?

Has public sentiment more influence than have the laws ?

Is wealth a greater power in the world than is learning ?

Is talent becoming more common and great genius more rare ?

Is it better to be young than old ?

Is it better to be rich than poor ?

Has the steam-engine been a greater benefit to the world than has the telegraph ?

Is pauperism more the result of untoward circumstances than of individual inefficiency ?

Was the Spanish-American war justifiable ?

Should the United States annex the Philippine Islands ?

Having selected your subject, marshal your knowledge of that subject. If necessary, add to that knowledge by research. If possible, select a topic upon which you are able to speak immediately. Assume the Initial position. Use a full, round tone, with time, pitch, force, and quality suited to the subject. Form in your mind an analysis of the subject. This analysis will at first consist of a few comprehensive divisions. By practice the outline is more quickly formed and gives more detail. From the outline frame your speech, working out the subdivisions as fast as you are able.

Do not be discouraged if at the first attempt you are unable to formulate your analysis. Remember the process by which you formed the written analysis in Exercise VII. Persevere and practise, and the work of preparation outlined in the preceding exercises will prove its worth. You will succeed, and by your success will have become an extemporaneous speaker.

CHAPTER XVII

DEBATE

Province of Debate—Choosing, Stating, and Defining the Question —Opening and Closing Arguments—The Burden of Proof— —Management of Debate—The Time Limit—Following the Theme—Skill in Speaking.

THE term debate has a wide significance. It is by no means confined to those formal occasions when disputants meet in a public place or at the bar to argue their differences before an audience or a jury. The world is full of controversy, and has been since the beginning.

Province of Debate.

Political and social questions are subjects for debate whenever men meet, and religion has been a fruitful source of contention in families and neighborhoods, as well as in synods, conferences, and other ecclesiastical gatherings. The school debating society, the lyceum, the town meeting, and the legislative assembly are institutions that have flourished in America. There is an important sense, indeed, in which we are a nation of debaters. What is public opinion or public policy in this Republic, but principles given shape and form in the crucible of universal discussion? The daily and weekly Press

is practically a means of giving publicity and circulation to current discussion. Periodicals put it in more condensed and better literary form, and the outgrowth of debate in the school of universal enlightenment is finally recorded in books and treasured in libraries.

The importance of debate, then, cannot be overestimated. Its study becomes essential to well rounded education, and the reason for its extended consideration in a general work on public speaking is too obvious for comment.

Universality of Debate.

"Debate is older than language, and is in fact common among creatures which have no speech, such as babes and bees. Debaters have had both power and reputation as far back as

> "'Nestor, the master of persuasive speech,
> The clear-toned Pylian orator, whose tongue
> Dropped words more sweet than honey.'

"Indeed, the first book of the Iliad is little more than a record of a tumultuous debating society which sadly needed the restraints of Jefferson's *Manual*. Themistocles reached the climax of dramatic debate in his 'Strike, but hear me.' The Icelanders loved a wrangle and plied each other with the subtlest legal arguments over Burnt Njal, till the inevitable moment came when the crust over the Icelandic volcanic temper broke up, and the contestants clenched their arguments with battle-axes. Cicero seems to have preferred those debates in which he had no opponent. For debatable questions the world has never found a lack. Religion has furnished an array of fatally attractive subjects, from the differences between Socrates and the Sophists down to

the defence of Anne Hutchinson against the orthodox Massachusetts clergy; politics is, rightly construed, only organized discussion; and social questions have been the dividing wedge in families and communities ever since people became aware that they had neighbors with whom to dispute."

The first requisite in formal discussion is a debatable question. In debates such as are undertaken in educational institutions or in lyceums, choosing the question is an important though not generally a difficult task. Among the many subjects of discussion constantly before the world and claiming its attention, it is an easy matter to find one suitable for debate. Living questions or those having present interest are always preferable to those buried in the past. In preparing for debate, possibly practical knowledge can be better gained by discussing a fresh subject than one which would lead the investigator only to dusty library shelves for information and material. For lively and interesting discussion at the time of this writing, a question relating to the unjust treatment of Alfred Dreyfus would be preferable to one having reference to the aged prisoner of Chillon. In like manner, debaters would naturally take greater interest in the contemplated annexation of the Philippines to the United States, than in the discussion of the colonial policy of Great Britain in India or Egypt. Why General Shafter paused before the trenches of Santiago, is also a better theme for debate than why Julius Cæsar paused at the Rubicon.

The Question.

Formulating the question comes next in order,

and at this point care and thought are necessary. The question should be reduced to a single proposition, and that must be debatable. Resolved: That the Caucasian is a white man, is not a debatable question. There are no black Caucasians. Resolved: That a republican form of government is unsuited to France, is debatable in the light of what has recently transpired in that country. **Formulating the Question.**

Having decided upon the question and having reduced it to writing, it is important that its terms should be clearly defined. Much of the contention in courts turns upon the meaning of words in law, and religious controversies have been waged for centuries over the meaning of the term, to baptize. It is important that the leading disputants should agree upon the obvious meaning of the terms contained in the proposition for debate. **Defining the Question.**

Suppose, for example, that the question chosen for discussion reads, Resolved: That territorial expansion would be detrimental to the United States. The definition of terms would be as follows: **Illustration.**

Territorial expansion, means permanent acquisition of territory, without reference to the prospective political status of its inhabitants.

Detrimental, means injurious to the political interests of the United States.

The United States, means the nation.

" To find satisfactory definitions," says Mr. Baker in

Principles of Argumentation, " is by no means always an easy task. In the topic, 'Should the United States have exclusive jurisdiction over Behring Sea?' if you look up 'exclusive jurisdiction' in a dictionary and find 'entire, supreme control' as its equivalent, how much have you gained in clearness? What are the limits of 'entire control'?—by what law, common or international, are they applied? Just how much, too, is meant, geographically, by 'Behring Sea'? Does the term in this case cover the straits leading into the waters marked with this name on maps? Here are many questions not to be answered off-hand, but only after careful examination of the material on the question.

Definition Difficult.

" We shall find that in many cases the dictionaries aid us only to substitute a vagueness for a generality, or the opposite. Definitions from dictionaries should, therefore, be used only with great caution. For instance, justifiable is defined as defensible, warrantable,—but in a question like 'Are the Irish justified in using illegal measures of resistance to English rule?' to substitute 'defensible,' 'warrantable,' does not make the meaning of the proposition any clearer to us. We need to know on what grounds the 'justifiability,' 'defensibility,' 'warrantableness,' are to be judged. These may be moral, social, economic, political, and, until we decide on which of these we are to judge, we cannot proceed with the discussion."

Obviously, it is the duty of speakers assigned to debate to prepare for it conscientiously. They should not only investigate the question, but those on the same side should frequently confer together. The line of discussion to be followed, and the particular part each is to assume

Duties of Speakers.

in establishing the proposition he is to advocate and defend, require attention. Each side should have a leader, and upon him, with the consent of his colleagues, devolves the management of the debate. It is as incumbent upon the rest to obey his lead as it is upon him to take the initiative, for harmony in effort means power and success. To this end all must be ready to receive suggestion, to yield to criticism, and to sink self in the common cause.

The right to open the debate or to close it offers substantial advantage. According to the rules of order accepted by most debating societies, the affirmative side opens the discussion and the negative closes it, on the theory that the negative must be given the privilege of replying to the arguments of the affirmative. The custom generally followed is: The leaders speak in rebuttal after the formal closing of the arguments, all speeches in rebuttal being confined to criticism or review of the points already established. But whatever the course pursued, the first speech and the last are clearly vantage points in debate. We reserve for subsequent sections detailed consideration of the opening and closing statements, simply introducing here a few suggestions regarding the advantages and disadvantages of the two positions in the discussion.

Opening and Closing.

The chief advantage in opening the debate is the opportunity it offers for creating a favorable impression. Let a skilful debater, who thoroughly understands the art of pleasing an audience, go first upon the floor, and he will create so favorable an impression that succeeding speakers

Advantages in Opening.

will find it difficult to eradicate it. The mind is so constituted that it takes impressions of its cognitions much as the delicate lines of a picture are traced upon the negative in a camera. These impressions can be presently effaced only by the substitution of new ones. But when they are strong and traced upon a virgin surface, this is a difficult undertaking. Therefore, it often happens that the first speaker in a debate leaves an impression which is not removed, and the subsequent debaters are forced to be content with superimposing the outlines of their argument upon it and thus producing a composite photograph.

Other Advantages.

The opening speaker has other advantages. He gives direction to the debate by the statement of the question. He may introduce a telling point or so, but one of the chief arts of the opening is not to argue much, and thus leave the leader on the other side without any visible points of attack. The opening speaker also may skilfully turn attention to the points likely to be raised by his opponents, and demolish them beforehand.

The Disadvantages.

But there are certain disadvantages in opening the debate. It involves the necessity for aggressive argument and places the opposition upon the defensive. In other words, it carries with it the burden of proof, which ordinarily is no inconsiderable load. The opener starts first, but he runs handicapped. The speaker, therefore, should reflect before he takes the affirmative side. Supposed advantages of opening may be more than

counterbalanced by the burden of proving the question.

In law courts the last word to the jury is regarded as a most valuable advantage. To secure it, lawyers have often made concessions to their opponents which lost them the verdict. Experience appears to have established the fact that when the jury retires with the words of the last advocate ringing in their ears, their verdict is influenced thereby. That the closing argument in debate may be turned to good account no one will deny, and it is one of the vantage grounds in public discussion which should not be lightly surrendered by a speaker to whom it rightly belongs.

Advantages in Closing.

But in speaking last the debater is called upon to discount the weariness of his auditors, and to make points clear to minds confused with a variety of impressions. He is literally to win his way by threshing over old straw. He cannot introduce new argument or shift the current of discussion. His task is obviously difficult.

Its Disadvantages.

As we have stated in a preceding section, the burden of proof rests upon the affirmative, when the question is stated in a simple affirmative proposition. In questions stated negatively the burden still remains with the affirmative, though the negative side argues the positive or counter proposition. The burden of proof can be shifted to the negative only when the speakers on that side choose to give a special interpretation to the question, thereby assuming the burden of proof. This is sometimes done when the negative has a

Burden of Proof.

strong point in reserve, and is reasonably sure of its ground.

Illustration.

Resolved: That the Philippines should be annexed to the United States. Burden of proof on the affirmative.

Resolved: That Canada should not be annexed to the United States. Burden of proof on the affirmative.

Is Porto Rico a colony or a territory of the United States? Burden of proof upon the affirmative in whichever proposition he chooses.

Was Napoleon Bonaparte born in 1768 or 1769? Burden of proof upon each disputant to establish the date he advocates.

Resolved: That territorial expansion would be detrimental to the United States. Suppose the affirmative to have argued that territorial expansion would be injurious to the political interests of the United States, intending to confine the discussion to that phase of the question. The negative refuses to be so bound, gives the question a wider application, insists that it would not be detrimental to commerce, industry, or internal political policy. With this strong position the negative declares that expansion would not be injurious to any public interest of the United States, thus assuming the burden of proof by virtually re-stating the question.

The general importance of the opening statement in debate has been referred to in a previous section.

The Opening Speech.

We will now consider it in detail, and endeavor to show of what it should consist and how it may be used to the best effect. As

before remarked, its chief value lies in making a strong impression in the opening words. To that end the first speech should be clear in statement, polished in diction, and conciliatory in tone. The effort of the leader upon the affirmative should be directed to making a pleasing impression by whatever arts he may have at his command. It was Xenophon who said that it is easiest to persuade those we please, and the speaker who can first delight and then convince his audience has won half the battle in the very beginning.

"A reasoner should always avail himself of a presumption in his favor, if one exists, and should never unnecessarily assume the burden of proof. In criminal cases, the question upon whom rests the burden of proof may be a question of life or death."

The duty of stating the question, as it is called, devolves upon the first speaker. This means laying down the grounds of the discussion and giving direction to the argument. He should not only set forth the proposition to be proved, but make its terms clear, and, at least, indicate in a general way how his side of the question is to be established. This is obviously an advantage, and when a specific direction has been given to the discussion by the opening speaker, it is dangerous for the opposition to introduce any changes. If that is done, it lays the negative open to the charge of trying to evade the issue and to argue something not offered by the affirmative. Therefore, while the opening statement should be framed in a pleasing

Stating the Question.

form, it should also have logical consistency. Unless the affirmative speaker causes his auditors to feel the grip of conviction, he has missed his opportunity as much as though he had failed to put them in good humor.

The Negative.

In the opening speech for the negative skill is required also. The same qualities of voice, gesture, and manner are called into play. There is need of the same clearness of statement and of a similar effort to leave behind an abiding impression. Indeed, the leader on the negative may so far surpass his rival in this regard as to capture the audience and make it his. It is possible for him to be so much more persuasive than his opponent on the affirmative as to make him suffer by the comparison. Therefore, the work of opening the debate on either side is a delicate and responsible task, requiring skill, tact, and ability of a high order. It is the opinion of an eminent judge in discussing this point, that not one lawyer in twenty can state a case to the jury neatly, logically, and compactly. Probably it is no exaggeration to say that the same thing is true among debaters. Let it not be forgotten that the opening speech should be brief, clear, eloquent, and should produce a favorable impression.

Disarming Opponent.

Anticipating opponent's line of attack is a strong point in the opening speech. After the affirmative leader has stated his own case and indicated the direction which the discussion is to take, he can do no better than to give attention to one or two of the leading arguments likely to be

brought forward by the negative. The effort, of course, should be to prove such arguments to be fallacious, and to answer them briefly and convincingly. Such a course has the advantage of putting the negative on the defence to protect his own argument, as well as to answer that brought forward for him to refute. When the affirmative can thus compel the negative to leave his chosen line of defence and to adopt a new line, much has been accomplished.

Caution.

Entering the domain of the negative argument, however, is attended with some danger to the affirmative. The mere statement of the points to be answered always affects the affirmative's position, because the statement is a tacit recognition that the question has two debatable sides. Accordingly, if recourse is to be had to this method of argument, it should be used with discretion. The affirmative speaker should always see to it that he does not state the arguments of the negative better than that side could itself state them. A clergyman of large observation and experience gave it as his deliberate conviction that more infidels had been made by stating sceptical theories in the pulpit for the purpose of refuting them, than ever could have been made by the works of all the writers against religion.

A Presumption.

Finally, the purpose of the opening speech is to create a strong presumption in favor of the side of the question which it advocates. By clearness of statement and by the logical force of his argument the speaker should succeed in

winning the audience to his way of thinking. Of what avail is conciliatory manner and pleasing address, if it does not accomplish this most important end? The first speaker, like his colleagues, is naturally possessed of a laudable ambition to win, and he must work to that end. Indeed, the chief purpose of making the opening statement is to get the audience into the road in which they are to travel to the end of the discussion.

It is related of an eminent lawyer in Great Britain, who was noted for winning verdicts, that in addressing the jury he always seemed to be standing in the box, debating the law and facts in the case with them. It is this power of making one's auditors feel that the speaker is one of them, thinking as they think, always on the right side, that wins in the end.

Management of Debate.

Debate, in its best form, is an inspiring intellectual game. Like athletic sports, it needs side captains and an umpire. The rules of order assign the duties of the latter to the president or presiding officer. By common consent the leading speakers are the captains, and direct matters, each from his own side. Upon these and the presiding officers great responsibility rests, and success and enjoyment of debate depends largely upon its intelligent management.

The Preliminaries.

The number of speakers and the time limit are matters to be decided between the contestants prior to the debate. Usually the challenge sent by one side to the other states both these items. In other cases these matters are

determined by established rules or the by-laws. The time limit should be, and generally is, rigidly enforced. It may cut speeches in twain, and ruthlessly nip eloquence in the bud, yet a presiding officer who conscientiously performs his duty will call the speaker to order the moment his time has expired.

It is understood that the negative follows the affirmative in regular order through the discussion. But the order in which the disputants on the same side shall speak is left to the leaders to decide. They should be guided by the exigencies of the discussion, and it may be wise to send on a speaker out of the order provisionally agreed upon. For instance, a speaker upon the affirmative brings out very prominently a point which a negative debater has specially studied. It will be wise, even if out of the regular order of speakers, to bring forward at once this representative, and reply then and there to the affirmative argument. In like manner, the negative may make a telling point which the affirmative leader wishes to rebut. Then he must take one of his colleagues, out of the order agreed upon, to perform the work for which he is specially prepared. Skill in management tells quite as effectively as ability in debate, and success comes most often to that team whose members work together.

Order of Speaking.

It is the duty of each speaker to strictly observe the time limit and to bring his speech to a fitting close within the time specified. A flowing sentence suspended in midair by the

The Time Limit.

fall of the president's gavel is a sentence lost. It cannot be finished, and a speech so interrupted is necessarily an incomplete and unsatisfactory one. Proper management of debate, therefore, brings every argument or statement to a close before the speaker is warned of the expiration of his time.

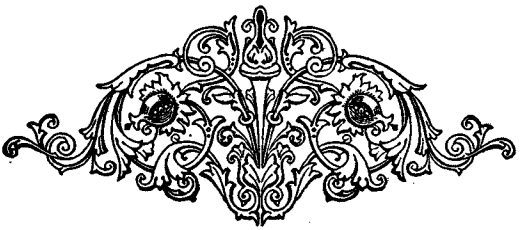
Without seeking to lay down hard-and-fast rules for the conduct of debate, it may be observed that the work of the opening speakers is chiefly to introduce the theme. The later debaters are to elaborate different points and to discuss the subject exhaustively. The discussion is to finally embrace an elaborate and finished exposition of the subject. If it fails to do this, there is a mistake in management or in effective team work.

Following the Theme.

Skill in debate implies much. It requires the attribute of common sense and involves the exercise of sound judgment. Briefly stated, skill in debate is knowing what to say and how and when to say it. These qualities of mind have received the names of sagacity and tact, and hundreds of pages have been written in order to draw a dividing line between them and to praise the virtues of each. The debater needs them both. He is called upon to anticipate the force of an argument and to parry the blow like a skilful swordsman. In this he exhibits that keenness of perception which is called sagacity. Perceiving the dangers ahead, he must turn quickly to avoid them, and escape by a series of adroit movements which belong in the

Skill in Debate.

province of tact. If he cannot conveniently meet and conquer opposition, he may tactfully avoid it, and continue his argument undisturbed. It is this capacity of being upon the alert and of turning every circumstance to advantage that counts in winning favorable decisions from audiences or judges of debate.



CHAPTER XVIII

DEBATE *(Continued)*

The Argument—Varieties—Argumentation Composite—Earnestness Required—The Speaking—Its Purpose—Power of Words—The Rebuttal—Closing Argument—One Hundred Subjects for Debate.

THE argument should stand forth at last intrinsically strong. Those who hear must be made to feel not only that the speaker has proved his point, but that his position is impregnable. This will not be accomplished by setting up favorite beliefs and theories and labelling them strong arguments. On the contrary, that disputant is most capable who presents his side of the case so that the auditors feel the grip of conviction upon their minds as he proceeds. To this end we will discuss briefly what constitutes a strong and convincing argument.

Strength of Argument.

This will be revealed by considering the purpose which such an argument has in view—that of enlightening the mind, convincing the judgment, exciting the emotions, and persuading the will.

Its Purpose.

Every discourse in the general field of debate

must carry certain information. Facts are the groundwork of argument, and there must be at least enough enlightenment to inform the audience regarding the nature of the question and the facts pertaining to it. Suppose, for example, that granting independence to the Philippine Islands is under debate. It would be necessary not only to state the limits of the discussion, but to bring forward a great deal of information concerning the Filipinos, their industrial progress, and their advancement in civilization. In short, to convince anybody of the truth of the question, it would be necessary first to lodge a conception, in the mind of the hearer, of the present condition and future prospects of that far-away people. In the case cited this could be effected by a spirited narration of facts. In other cases definition, detailed description, explanation, demonstration, or comparison might be required.

Enlightening the Mind.

Having lodged a conception of the subject in the mind, the next step is to induce the hearer to accept it as true. The auditor may be entirely ignorant on the subject and may have no opinions. In his case these are to be formed. Again, the auditor may be doubtful or wavering in his views. In that case doubt is to be removed and certainty implanted in its place. Finally, the auditor may have preconceived opinions directly hostile to the view to be taken. In that case he must be won from error to truth.

Convincing the Judgment.

These several ends may naturally be effected in the same way — by argument. The simple state-

ment of the case might be sufficient for the man who had no previous opinions. Confirmation of fact and evidence might wholly remove the doubts of the wavering auditor. The hostile auditor must be convinced by the force of the syllogism and the compulsion of logical proof.

Kinds of Argument.

At this point we will briefly consider the various kinds of arguments which may be employed to establish proof. With reference to their use, arguments are direct and indirect. By direct argument is meant bringing forward proof to establish a proposition directly on its merits. Indirect argument is proving a proposition by disproving the contrary, by the process of exclusion, or by the method known as *reductio ad absurdum.*

According to their form, arguments are complete or incomplete. The complete argument is one in syllogistic form, having major premise, minor premise, and conclusion stated. Incomplete argument is one in which the middle term is suppressed. Example: The Filipinos are incapable of self-government, because they are not educated. In their essential nature arguments are *a priori*, or from antecedent probability. Such are arguments from substance to attribute and from cause to effect. According to their nature, arguments are also *a posteriori*, or arguments from experience. Such are arguments based upon inference and upon testimony.

Exciting the Emotions.

The appeal to the emotions is made to excite strong feeling, in order to move the mind to the acceptance of truth. Hence excitation, except as a means to an end, is of little

use in debate. As an end in itself it proves nothing, and simply invites the jibes and jeers of the opposition.

Persuasion seeks to move the will to a single act or to a course of action. This is the great leading principle of argumentation. If the single act is contemplated, the reasons urged must be plausible, but need not be of a character to undergo minute inspection. If the object is to induce to a course of action, the reasons in favor of it must be stronger, more numerous, and capable of standing any logical test.

Persuading the Will.

While argumentation is subject to the foregoing analysis, in practice it is composite. When speaking there is often no real distinction between conviction and persuasion, the prime object being to move the mind of the auditor and to attain the object sought. Enlightenment of the mind and appeal to the emotions also may join hands in the common cause without reference to the nice distinctions laid down by rhetoricians. Yet the analysis is valuable, suggesting as it does the various steps in the process of constructing an argument intrinsically strong.

Argumentation Composite.

Among other qualities of speech the disputant should cultivate earnestness. The debater must be profoundly convinced of the truth of his position, or, at least, appear to be so. In the opinion of some this quality cannot be simulated, and yet the best and most successful lawyers have defended clients they probably knew to be in the wrong. Earnestness we believe to be a relative

Earnestness Required.

quality and largely a matter of acquisition. It may be easier to frame an argument along the lines of one's belief, but it is not impossible to develop interest in a question that runs counter to personal opinion. Earnestness and resolution are unmistakable elements of power, and the disputant whose interest, temporary or otherwise, renders him deeply in earnest in the issue he advocates, is on the high road to a favorable decision for his side. It was O'Connell who said that a great speech is a fine thing, but, in court, the verdict is *the* thing. Hence the debater should cultivate in particular those qualities of mind and graces of speech which will enable him to win.

The Speaking.

But the message must be delivered as well as appropriately framed. It is not enough for the disputant in the various fields of debate to arrange his arguments in logical form, and to bring forward ethical truths to work upon the emotions of his auditors. The task of delivery is an important one. Arguments do not state themselves. Valuable information is not conveyed automatically from mind to mind. Truth convinces no one unless adequately presented, and persuasion is effected in debate only through verbal expression. The art of speaking, therefore, is fundamental. It is that part of the disputant's work which has been called the art of telling some one else in words exactly what one means to say.

Grammar, Rhetoric, and Logic.

It is assumed that the student has a knowledge of English grammar, rhetoric, and logic. These sciences should antedate public

DHIRAJLAL KESHAVLAL THAKORE,

speaking in the general groundwork of education. They belong essentially to the rudiments of a practical school training. But the arts of rhetoric and logic, which apply to extemporaneous speech quite as much as to written discourse, cannot be mastered within the limits of a college term in boyhood. They are rather the study of a lifetime, and grow largely out of experience. Hence the debater needs to study constantly to improve his vocabulary, to learn accurately the meaning and pronunciation of words, and to practise their use in writing and in speech. As aids to the student along this line I recommend such works as Hill's *Principles of Rhetoric* (New York, Harpers), Baker's *Principles of Argumentation*, and Holyoake's *Public Speaking and Debate* (Boston, Ginn & Co.). The course of instruction laid down in the chapter on Extemporaneous Speaking is also applicable here.

Phrasing.

Phrasing is no small part of the efficacy of public speech. By phrasing is meant the grouping of words into pithy, telling, and forceful expression, and has here no reference to delivery. Phrases gave point to the Declaration of Independence and fired the patriotism of the colonies. It was a phrase which inspired heroism in the American navy in the late war with Spain, and turning phrases has much to do with turning the minds of auditors in debate. Nothing pleases more than a telling phrase, and a series of them, apt, forcible, and clear, will strengthen the speech of a disputant almost as much as sound argument.

Public speaking as an art is treated at length elsewhere in this work. But the debater, in particular, needs to devote great attention to attitude, voice, articulation, gesture, and all the mechanical effort of speaking. If he is not a practical elocutionist, he has missed one of the principal elements of power as an advocate of any question.

Speaking.

Apt illustration is a power in discussion. It is not necessary that the speaker should become a confirmed story-teller. Yet illustrative material, whether in the form of quaint or humorous stories or in that of fitting quotations, is a source of strength in argumentation. By a law of thought the mind moves easiest from the concrete to the abstract or from a particular case to a general law. Hence the value of illustration in clenching the truth of an argument.

Mirabeau, in a taunting reply to an opponent in the National Assembly of France, thundered from the Tribune: "Words are things." And words are things of power coming from such men as Mirabeau, Burke, Chatham, Webster, Calhoun, and Everett. It was Hazlitt who said, they are the only things which live forever. Standing alone without accompanying ideas and the voice of energetic articulation, words are evanescent and barren. They are worthless as grains of sand in the multitude by the sea. But unite the word with an idea and send it forth upon the wings of eloquence, and it becomes a force whose power cannot be measured. The best results

Power of Words.

are achieved when strong thought is wedded to strong words, and when the vocabulary freely yields precise and forceful words for the expression of one's views. Even ideas intrinsically weak may seem strong when upheld by powerful words. It is vigorous thought and impressive words which the debater most needs. Short words are better than long ones, and when a man with a message to proclaim stands before an audience he will usually employ familiar words, full of significance and ringing with meaning.

Direct statement grows naturally out of the correct use of words. Let the disputant accustom himself to express his views in plain language, and his sentences will fall into declarative form and his utterance will be emphatic and forcible. There is a peculiar relation between plain thought and plain language, and where one is found the other will not be far away. Perhaps the shortest, simplest, and plainest oration ever delivered was Lincoln's speech at Gettysburg, and there is not a word in it beyond the comprehension of the average child. Yet that oration is regarded as one of the masterpieces of eloquence.

Direct Statement.

What has been said regarding the use of words acquires a new meaning when the primary purpose of speaking is considered. The aim of speech in disputation is to carry one's point. On the hustings it is to win votes, on the lyceum platform it is to capture the decision of audience or judges, and at the bar it is to secure the verdict. Consequently, words cannot be wasted. They are, like argument,

only a means to an end, and that end is not a display of eloquence, but success.

Some disputants act upon the idea that they must resort to sarcasm, invective, or wit to make a proper impression upon the audience. This is a grave mistake. Sarcasm, invective, and humor undoubtedly are strong weapons in the hands of an experienced debater. They have all been used with telling effect by the great orators of the world. Each has its part to perform in advocacy or refutation, but they should be used with extreme care and caution. It is but a step from sarcasm to flippancy, and that is a fault no audience will condone. A "smart" speaker is always a disagreeable one, and invective and wit in the hands of the majority of debaters descend into smartness. Applying epithets and making personal allusions to the disparagement of an opponent in debate is not argument, and it is not good taste. Abuse of speakers on the other side under the cloak of insinuation and suggestion should be avoided. The miserable wrangles between counsel in courts, in which wit measures wit, are useless, and, in a majority of instances, positively annoying. Seriousness, as well as power of thought and clearness of statement, is a virtue in debate.

Avoid Flippancy.

There are certain amenities in debate which should be observed. Discussion, as we have said, is not a personal abuse of an opponent or belittling of his opinions. To misstate his views or to declare that they mean something different from what he says they mean must not be at-

Amenities of Debate.

tempted, unless the refuting debater is sure of his ground. Though the disputants on opposite sides may differ, they can well afford to be courteous toward each other. No justification exists for the merciless pursuit of an opponent often indulged in under the cloak of advocacy. During the preliminary stages of a discussion, when the question is chosen, the time limit set, and other matters decided, there should be a spirit of fairness displayed. Concede choice in some matters to your opponent. All these things count. Success in disputation does not so much consist in flaying an opponent as in destroying his argument.

It is enjoined in the rules of order that contestants in debate shall avoid personalities. The rule is usually interpreted to mean that persons shall not be mentioned by name. Speakers are referred to as the gentleman on the affirmative, the counsel for the plaintiff, or the member from South Carolina. It is evident, therefore, that offensive personalities can be indulged in under the rules of order. As a matter of fact, disputants in the majority of cases prod each other with jibes and make aspersive allusions, all the while avoiding personalities in the accepted meaning of that term. But the view here taken is, that personalities should be avoided in fact as well as in form.

Avoid Personalities.

In the actual discussion the debater should not fail to state his side strongly. For the time being, at least, the issue he advocates is the truth. It is his business to make it impregnable. To that end there should be

State your Side Strongly.

no compromise with the error of the opposition. To all intents and purposes the contestant believes in his question with the strength of religious conviction, and it is for him to bring his auditors to that way of thinking. As a policy of debate this should be strictly adhered to if the debater is to make a strong impression.

Sincerity is a virtue in debate. Real sincerity is born of conviction, but real sincerity may arise from the responsibility of advocating or defending the cause you have undertaken. It is clearly within the bounds of possibility to be perfectly straightforward and consistent in pleading a cause, which, to individual belief, has no basis of truth. And perfect sincerity is here an element of success which the wise disputant will never attempt to ignore. The way in which the art is to be acquired is, by intense application, to develop interest in the question of debate. Any subject assiduously studied until one is master of it has an intrinsic interest. So with a contention which, at first, may be repugnant. It is a noteworthy fact that editorial writers on the daily newspapers indite powerful articles, upon political and other subjects, diametrically opposed in sentiment to their own convictions. To accomplish such a feat the writer must sink self in the policy of his paper, and sincerely develop an interest in the topics he is called upon to discuss. The editorial writer is not chargeable with intellectual hypocrisy, for he develops the art of consistent advocacy by study and application. It is vain to say that no one can successfully defend

Sincerity in Debate.

principles which he does not believe. The fact is that men are constantly doing this in various fields of effort.

The argument in rebuttal is a fashion in formal debates borrowed from the law courts. In the introduction of testimony there, opportunity is offered to one side to bring in evidence to refute that produced by the other. It is customary for the leaders to "sum up" in brief closing speeches. This custom has grown in favor until it is now generally adopted. The Rebuttal.

Rebuttal enables the managers of a discussion to give it logical consistency and form before it goes to the tribunal for decision. If the several speeches have not perfectly fitted together, and the argument in consequence is somewhat disjointed, its parts can be articulated and polished up in the closing. A skilful debater, by the proper use of recapitulation, can fasten in the mind of the audience the main points of the discussion and give them a new significance from the strength added by clear and succinct statement. Its Advantages.

But the re-statement of points made is not the only advantage offered in rebuttal. There is a chance for offensive work for the speaker's side. This is accomplished, of course, by emphasizing points that have been made, and by introducing sharp comment upon the course of the discussion. Properly managed rebuttal is the most significant part of the debate. It should be spirited, bright, and witty, and should resemble the final dash of racers in the home-stretch. To follow the Opportunity in Rebuttal.

figure, the closing speakers should make a brilliant finish, furnishing the chief intellectual excitement of the evening. In the hands of antagonists who fully appreciate the advantages and opportunities of the rebuttal, it is for the audience the most enjoyable part of the debate. A brilliant closing is as advantageous as a favorable opening, and the two naturally stand as part and counterpart.

Closing Argument.

The character of the closing argument has been already indicated in a general way. It is to introduce no new lines of argument and must be principally confined to what has gone before. But there is an art in closing of which the contestant should not be ignorant. The value of that last word to the jury will be impaired if it is not ably spoken. The first requisite is brevity, for it must not be forgotten that the discussion has already proceeded to some length, and the artist now giving it attention is only bestowing the finishing touches. It is now too late to make an elaborate argument, and the grand purpose of the final effort is to strengthen and reinforce that which has been made. What is said should also be particularly apt and pertinent. The auditors are weary and interest is waning, perhaps gone, and anything which can be now added must necessarily be unusually bright, if it is to attract and hold attention. Moreover, the closing speaker, in his effort to please and persuade his auditors, must not lose sight of the worth of that last word, which may win the verdict. Consequently, the closing speaker should be at his best. Whatever art he possesses should be brought to

bear upon his work. Every statement should count and every word should tell. While pleasing his audience, he should convince them that he is right, winning his case by the cogency of the argument he is re-stating, and the energy, born of conviction, displayed in its defense.

By whatever arts he is master of, the closing speaker should complete the work of persuasion. If any argument is weak, if any fact has been misplaced, if any word is lacking to complete the chain of proof, it should now be supplied. **Persuasion in Closing.**

The closing argument, then, should be brief, direct in statement, earnest in appeal, and strong in delivery. Its logic should be absolute and its persuasion effective. **Its Characteristics.**

ONE HUNDRED SUBJECTS FOR DEBATE

Art:

1. Is photography of greater practical value than mechanical drawing?
2. Was Titian a greater artist than Correggio?
3. Is the Wagnerian school entitled to a permanent place in classical interpretation?
4. Is popular music more useful than classical?
5. Can an artist possess the commercial instinct?
6. Is art the handmaid of science?
7. Can designing patterns for wall-paper be called art?
8. Does newspaper illustration offer a field for the display of artistic talent?
9. Is parlor music worthy of serious study?

10. Does the study of science check the true artistic spirit ?

Biography :

11. Was Gladstone a greater statesman than Disraeli ?

12. Did the acts of Napoleon justify his banishment to St. Helena ?

13. Were the Gracchi patriots or selfish demagogues ?

14. Was Bismarck or Von Moltke the founder of the German Empire ?

15. Is Tesla or Edison the greater electrician ?

16. Was Grant a greater strategist than Lee ?

17. Was Jervis a greater naval commander than Nelson ?

18. Was Admiral Cervera's dash from Santiago harbor justifiable ?

19. Was Burke a greater orator than Fox ?

20. Was Chatham a greater statesman than Walpole ?

Ethics :

21. Is a lie ever justifiable ?

22. Should penalties be reformatory or punitive ?

23. Should capital punishment be abolished ?

24. Is the theatre an evil to be eradicated ?

25. Are games of chance immoral ?

26. Are all men " born free and equal " ?

27. Is conscience a trustworthy guide ?

28. Is a man responsible for what he believes ?

29. Was the United States morally bound to interfere in Cuba ?

30. Were the European Powers responsible for the Armenian massacres ?

Education :

31. Should education in secondary schools be compulsory ?

32. Is co-education desirable ?

33. Should the State provide for or aid institutions of higher education ?

34. Should reward or punishment be used to maintain a high standard of study ?

35. Should the general Government establish a national university ?

36. Should any study be included in the college curriculum only because of its value as a means of mental discipline ?

37. Is history an essential element in a practical education ?

38. Is the study of Greek and Latin essential to a liberal education ?

39. Should methods of object-teaching be encouraged ?

40. Does the study of mathematics occupy too large a place in our educational systems ?

History :

41. Did Greece or Rome contribute most to modern civilization ?

42. Was the American-Spanish war justifiable ?

43. Is England under Victoria greater than Rome under the Cæsars ?

44. Should the Christian Powers drive the Turk out of Europe ?

45. Should the United States in 1899 have treated the Philippines as they did Cuba ?

46. Is the English occupation of the Soudan justifiable ?

47. Has Christianity or learning been the most potent factor in civilization ?

48. Has Africa or South America the greater possibilities of development ?

49. Has monasticism been productive of more good or evil ?

50. Was the overthrow of slavery in the United States the result of moral or political causes ?

Politics :

51. Should the centralizing tendency of government in the United States be checked ?

52. Is a Parliamentary Monarchy, like England, a better form of government than a Representative Republic, like the United States ?

53. Should Canada be annexed to the United States ?

54. Should there be a Federation of Republics in North, South, and Central America ?

55. Is a Third Party compatible with political methods in the United States ?

56. Is the suppression of Anarchist agitators a violation of the rights of liberty and free speech ?

57. Should municipal governments own and operate street railways ?

58. Should cities furnish water without charge to all citizens ?

59. Has the Australian ballot system prevented fraud at the polls ?

60. Is the Russian occupation of Eastern Asia hostile to the interests of the United States ?

Political Economy :

61. Is protection or free trade the better national policy ?

62. Should a "tariff for revenue only" be adopted by the United States ?

63. Is a bimetallic standard of the currency possible ?

64. Should internal revenue taxes be abolished ?

65. Ought the National Government to adopt an income tax ?

66. Should the greenback currency be abolished ?

67. Should the formation of trusts be made impossible by legal enactment ?

68. Has the value of gold appreciated ?

69. Should the Interstate Commerce Act be repealed ?

70. Are strikes justifiable ?

Literature :

71. Was Stevenson a greater novelist than Sir Walter Scott ?

72. Was Longfellow a greater poet than Tennyson ?

73. Is the constant reading of fiction injurious to the mind ?

74. Was Carlyle a greater thinker and writer than Emerson ?

75. Could Lord Bacon have written the plays of Shakespeare ?

76. Are the literary attainments of W. D. Howells greater than those of Rudyard Kipling ?

77. Has the growth of the Press raised the general literary standard ?

78. Does journalism offer better rewards to the writer than does literature ?

79. Was the literature of the Elizabethan period of a higher type than that of the Victorian ?

80. Is *Quo Vadis* a more powerful novel than *Ben Hur ?*

Science :

81. Is geological evidence absolute proof of the earth's age ?

82. Does the theory of evolution from lower to higher forms of life account for the existence of man ?

83. Is electricity a greater power than steam ?

84. Has climate a determining influence upon the character of men and nations ?

85. Does the nebular hypothesis satisfactorily account for the origin of the planets ?

86. Were the scientific discoveries of Newton more valuable than those of Darwin ?

87. Is the planet Mars inhabited ?

88. Can electricity be used for heating as well as for lighting cities ?

89. Is Arctic exploration justified by its results ?

90. What is the essential difference between man and the brute ?

Miscellaneous :

91. Is pulpit eloquence on the decline ?

92. Does the Press exert a greater influence than the pulpit ?

93. Should the United States interfere in European or Asiatic questions ?

94. How can the United States best develop a merchant marine ?

95. Is cremation preferable to earth burial ?

96. Has public opinion greater influence upon governments than respect for law ?

97. Will electricity supersede steam on long-distance railways ?

98. Is the telegraph more useful than the telephone ?

99. Does the public speaker exert a greater influence than the writer ?

100. Should the United States own and operate the Nicaragua Canal ?

CHAPTER XIX

DEBATE *(Concluded)*

Art of Refutation—Presumption and Sophistry—Admission—Attack few Points—Avoid Exaggeration—Stick to the Point—Let the Cause Speak—Clearness of Statement—Pure Diction—The Art of Presentation.

IF proving a proposition is an art, disproving it is equally so. In debate the burden of refutation rests upon the negative, and quite as much skill is required in demolishing a line of argument as in setting it up. The negative must not only disprove the proposition advanced by the affirmative, but must give reasons for establishing the truth of the counter proposition. In theory the negative is only required to carry the position assumed by the affirmative, but popular audiences, and sometimes impartial judges, are not satisfied unless the negative has shown that it has an argument as well as a refutation.

Art of Refutation.

Refutation, technically considered, is the logical overthrow of argument directed against the speaker's position. It may be accomplished by direct proof or indirectly through presumption or probable evidence. Carlyle claimed

Of What it Consists.

that it was not possible to fully confute error, until the mind should comprehend not only that it was error, but how it became so. He was right to this extent, that the mere assertion that a thing is wrong will not stand without confirmatory proof. So in negative debate the position of the affirmative must be assailed not only by general denial but by specific refutation. There is, of course, great wisdom in singling out the adversary's strong point and demolishing it. By so doing the whole argumentative structure falls in ruins. But a partial refutation is always dangerous. There may be a column left standing somewhere which will serve as a starting point for a new edifice, which the crafty builder on the other side will erect with amazing skill and speed. It is better, therefore, to answer every strong argument, and to bring against it the irresistible logic of fact and evidence.

Presumption and Sophistry.

It is not always possible to completely break down an argument advanced in debate. Questions for debate have on both sides an underlying basis of truth, and truth cannot be annihilated. It may be deftly covered up and concealed, but not overturned. To this end the debater must have recourse to those forms of indirect refutation known as presumptive argument and sophistry. The affirmative will have in the presentation of its case a theory or hypothesis which it will attempt to prove. This theory will contain one or more corollaries which may be successfully assailed, even though the truth of the central proposition remains uncontroverted. The plan of the

negative should then be to avoid the main issue. All mere assumptions, on the part of the affirmative, are to be overturned, side proofs are to be attacked, and by various flank movements there is to be such a display of forensic strategy that victory may be assured. Even sophistry may be introduced, on the theory that it keeps the speakers busy exposing it and allows the main issue to be kept out of sight.

This was practically the course pursued by Webster and Hayne in their famous debate of January, 1830, in the United States Senate. The question before the Senate was the Foot resolution relating to Public Lands and the Office of Surveyor-General. Both speakers wandered far from the question, and discussed the respective positions of Massachusetts and South Carolina on the question of State Rights.

Illustration.

A wise course to pursue in refutation is sometimes to attack a few weak points. These, vigorously assailed, often lead away the opposition from the advocacy of its strongest propositions. If the negative harps upon three or four comparatively insignificant arguments, the affirmative will begin to think that these are the only points needing attention. It is a wily stratagem, and has been successful in many a hard fought debate. Men not thoroughly trained in discussion will be caught by this lure, but it will not so easily catch experienced debaters, and should be resorted to only when all other available methods fail.

Attack Few Points.

But there are times when it is not advisable to

deny everything that the opposite side may say. A frank admission is better than denial when a refutation is impossible. By clearly stating the admitted proposition and throwing out strong limitations to the conclusions to be drawn therefrom, a trained speaker may greatly diminish its force. The other side will not think it worth while to argue admitted truth, and will be, to that extent, disarmed. This leaves opportunity to dispose of other points, and indirectly to attack the main proposition. If a corollary proves to be weak, and the admitted statement is shorn of its strength, an opportunity is offered in rebuttal to minimize the efforts of the affirmative and weaken the strength of their deductions.

Advisable Admissions.

Another mode of treating truthful and troublesome arguments is to meet them with dignified and unbroken silence. As a stratagem to avoid discussing the main issue this is equally as good as frank admission. True, the affirmative may say that the negative speakers are dodging, but if these resolutely refuse to consider the point in question, while vigorously arguing others, they will after awhile produce the impression that not much weight attaches to the affirmative's leading contention. This method sometimes succeeds.

Discreet Silence.

But stratagem will not take the place of logic in the art of refutation. The preparation of the question should be such that neither side will lack for reasons to establish its case. In all debatable issues such fact and argument can be found in abundance. Skilful refutation, therefore,

Argument in Refutation.

depends as much on accumulation and the proper use of materials for debate as the affirmative argument itself. And, inasmuch as truth is better than fiction, and reason than presumption, it is better to depend on what is substantial than upon what is untenable and weak. Manœuvring in debate is to be used only when methods of direct attack would fail.

A debater must be positive in his statements, but avoid exaggeration. Do not overstate the question in the beginning and do not over-argue it afterwards. It is said of Abraham Lincoln that he studied Euclid in order to learn when a thing is proved, and there have been few more successful debaters than he. As by instinct, the disputants should not only grasp the subject as a whole, but know exactly what and how much proof is required to establish it. In order to create a strong impression youthful debaters are apt to exaggerate the opening statement, and to place undue importance upon subsidiary propositions. It is a bad fault, and invariably leads to a disjointed argument, and to a discussion whose several parts are out of proportion.

Avoid Exaggeration.

In conducting an argument always stick to the facts. Obviously correct as this rule is, it is often violated in debate. Disputants put the case too strongly either in stating it or in bringing forward the principal proofs. Such a course is almost certain to end in disaster. There is in public discussion an inexorable law which requires every disputant to prove all that he starts to prove. If he fails in this his fickle audience jump

Facts, not Fiction.

to the conclusion that he has no case. On the other hand, when the statement of the question at issue is clear, positive, and strictly within the bounds of truth, the argument or proof will appear all the stronger when presented. The debater will seem modest in the eyes of his critics, and will sensibly rise in their estimation. It must be remembered that listening ears are open on the other side and quick eyes are watching for every mistake. Exaggeration or misstatement will not escape them, and the opposition is ever eager to turn the shafts of sarcasm and ridicule upon the hapless disputant who may be unwise enough to indulge in extravagant assertion or illogical proof. The debater is called upon to deal with facts, and he cannot add two and two together and make them five.

Questions in debate usually turn on a few points well put. The time of discussion is limited, and it is not always possible to bring out every phase of the subject and treat it exhaustively. A good rule to adopt, therefore, is not to cover too much ground. Success depends mainly upon grasping the important proofs of a proposition and upon steadfastly holding to them. They should be strongly differentiated and made prominent, and when sufficiently established they will generally complete the proof. Mr. Emerson said of Daniel Webster that he worked with that closeness of adhesion to the matter in hand which a joiner or a chemist uses, and that same quiet and sure feeling of right to his place that an oak and a mountain have to theirs. Webster won verdicts,

Emphasize Strong Points.

and it was this power of distinguishing the fundamental points in an argument, and shaping them as a builder lays the foundation stones, that made him so great an advocate and such a brilliant political orator.

Better Few than Many Points.

While questions are established by a few points; it is not always easy in preparing for debate to determine what these should be. All minds are not constituted alike, and what may seem a convincing reason to one may not appear so to another. There is need of a discriminating judgment, therefore, in selecting the arguments to be advanced. The disputant himself may fall into error along this line and weaken his cause by a bad choice. Yet it is better to have a few points adequately stated and proved than too many left in a nebulous condition. A few propositions clearly set forth and enforced by facts will create a more abiding impression than can a multitude of insufficiently supported arguments.

An anecdote is related by Mr. E. Parker, in *The Golden Age of American Oratory*, illustrating the truth of which we speak. Webster and Choate were once opposing counsel in a suit involving damages for the manufacture of imperfect car-wheels. Mr. Choate spoke to the jury for two hours, endeavoring to show that the manufactured wheel and its model bore no resemblance to one another. He sought to establish his contention by intricate reasoning and a long discourse upon the fixation of points. It was a labored, exhaustive, and convincing argument. But Mr. Webster, in his reply, stood for a

moment with his great eyes wide open gazing intently upon the two wheels lying before him. Then, turning to the jury, he said: "Gentlemen of the jury, there they are,—look at 'em." This one point, made as only Webster could make it, shivered Choate's argument to atoms, established the case, and won the verdict.

Keeping Within Bounds.

One of the most common faults in debate is failing to keep the line of discussion within bounds. We have already referred to the time-limit imposed upon speakers. The laws of debate lay similar restrictions upon the several disputants and prohibit them from wandering from the question at issue. The information gleaned may be interesting, but is not necessarily relevant. A sifting process is needed in order to separate what is useful from what is not. The duty of each disputant requires that he shall set forth the points assigned to him, and that he shall make them fit into the general trend of the discussion.

Stick to the Point.

A rule which debaters need constantly to have impressed upon their minds is, "Stick to the point." Nothing is more painful to a leader, and nothing more disastrous to general results, than a digression in the argument. Sometimes it happens that the presiding officer feels impelled to recall the irrelevant debater to the issue before the house, and this always impairs the power of the argument. The only advice which a veteran lawyer once gave to a young friend who was about to begin his career as an advocate was, "Stick to the point." We may well believe that it had an important effect

upon his career, if the advice was heeded. Irrelevant matter is the curse of debate, and it should be rigorously excluded.

In debate it is the question and not the speaker which should win. Or, to put it differently, the disputant should present his cause so convincingly that it will seem to speak for itself. The audience has an instinctive love of the truth, or of what it conceives to be the truth. Hence the debater who can state his side of the contention so as to conform with popular sentiment is on the right road to success. The sentiment of the listeners may be far from ethical, but for the time being it is law to the debater. Of course, there are instances in which men are called upon to face the mob, to bring opposition to silence, and to compel assent to unwelcome truth. Such occasions came to Anselm, to Savonarola, to Luther, and to many another mighty mind. But in ordinary debate the participants must take cognizance of the temper of their auditors, and the speaker who can hide himself behind the issue he advocates, and present it as an offering to popular sentiment, deserves and will have success.

Let the Cause Speak.

Clearness of statement has been designated as one of the virtues of debate. If a disputant cannot make his meaning plain to his auditors, he might as well speak in an unknown tongue. To this end all confusing statements and abstruse arguments should be discarded. What is needed is adequate presentation of the issues at stake, and that involves their perspicuous and plain

Clear Statement.

presentation. Clearness demands that whatever is said should be readily understood, without effort, by those to whom it is addressed. If the audience is obliged to guess at your meaning, attention will lag, and finally be lost. "Unless a speaker is understood, of what use is it for him to speak?" asked Quintilian. Clearness is, indeed, a virtue, and its chief aim is not to speak merely so that one's auditors can understand, but so that they must hear and give attention.

How Secured.

The first requisite to clearness of statement is clearness of conception on the part of the speaker. As elsewhere set forth, he first needs to think clearly before he can speak clearly. But clearness is also a relative quality. A learned professor, who has spent years in his study in converse with the world's great minds, may have clear conceptions of truth, and may discuss them so that one who is as learned as he could readily understand his words. At the same time his discourse might be wholly above and beyond the comprehension of the ordinary man. Hence the orator should be careful to adapt his language to the intelligence of his audience. The speaker should use plain words in which to clothe plain thoughts—familiar, accepted, and ordinary words, the meaning of which cannot be mistaken. Of all things, the debater should never undertake "with malice prepense" to become eloquent. Let him cultivate earnest, straightforward statement of facts, and he will be eloquent without knowing it.

Short sentences are better than long ones for pur-

poses of clearness. They best lend themselves to direct and positive utterance. If long sentences are introduced, care ought to be exercised that they shall be perfectly jointed in all their parts. One of the worst faults in debate is for the speaker to begin a sentence and to flounder hopelessly before it is finished. Language, like thought, needs to be clear cut and polished to brightness. Whately in his *Rhetoric* describes the oratorical period by saying: "We travel for days and come to our journey's end at last, with no small difficulty, after much fatigue, through deep roads and bad weather." The long and involved statement is pernicious in debate. In that field anything is better than obscurity. Words must be adapted to the thought to be expressed and to the understanding of the average hearer.

Short Sentences Best.

Nothing is more important to the debater than pure diction. Indeed, choice words—those which exactly express your meaning—are appropriate everywhere. It should be one of the first aims of education to acquire a good working vocabulary of the best English words. But even the graces of speech are not to be ignored. A disputant may have thought clearly and may so set forth his ideas; he may even be deeply in earnest and yet not move those to whom he speaks. He lacks eloquence or the power to stir the emotions and to excite conviction. His efforts are lifeless, because they strike nowhere. But in seeking to attain eloquence the speaker is in danger of mistaking the husk for the kernel. That is to say, he is

Pure Diction.

likely to assume the forms of oratorical discourse without the substance. He will use high-sounding words without high-sounding ideas. True eloquence grows out of the thoughts to be expressed, and is a part of them. Then, too, the florid rhetoric of Burke and the oriental richness of his fancy would to-day be strangely out of place in a debate of a lyceum, or in the halls of the capitol, while they were particularly appropriate to the British House of Commons in considering the affairs of India.

Plain men read, understand, and appreciate the Bible, Homer, and the speeches of Clay, Calhoun, and Webster; it is because there is an obvious fitness and harmony between the ideas expressed and the language in which they are conveyed.

In all forms of discussion the manner of putting things is highly important. Lincoln was a master of this art, and he said to his biographer that it irritated him, even as a boy, when any one spoke in words which he could not comprehend. And he stated that he made it a habit to find out the meaning of any dark saying he happened to hear, and to put it into language which an ordinary boy could understand. This perhaps explains the marvellous clearness and power of the speech at Gettysburg and the persuasive quality of his oratory on all occasions. Success at the bar, in the pulpit, in the legislative assembly, and in all places where men discuss live topics, depends largely upon the art of presentation.

Art of Presentation.

This art of presentation does not depend upon rules, but is largely a matter of judgment and ex-

perience. The arrangement of the heads of discourse is logical method, but explanation, description, the narration of events, the moulding of the whole into a plausible and pleasing argument is something to be developed by close thought, study, and effort.

How Acquired.

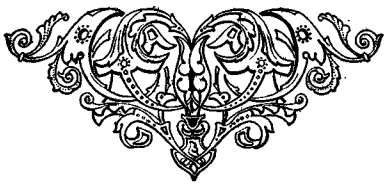


TABLE OF MOTIONS.

KEY.

Reading *horizontally* P shows that motion on horizontal line takes precedence of motion heading vertical column. Y shows that motion on horizontal line yields to motion heading vertical column. o shows that motion heading vertical column applies † to motion on the horizontal line.

The asterisks, dagger, and the letters a x c o refer to notes at foot of table.

MOTIONS.

		Subsidiary.						Incidental.						Privileged.				Reconsider.	Requires a Two-Thirds Vote.	Debatable.	Need not be Seconded.	In Order when Another has the Floor.	
		1 Lay on the Table.	2 The Previous Question.	3 Definite Postponement.	4 Commit.	5 Amend.	6 Indefinite Postponement.	1 Questions of Order (Appeal).	2 Objection to Considering Question.	3 The Reading of Papers.	4 Leave to Withdraw a Motion.	5 Suspension of the Rules.	6 Amendment of an Amendment.	1 Fix Time to which to Adjourn.	2 Adjourn.	3 Rights and Privileges of Members.	4 Call for Orders of the Day.						
Subsidiary (1)	1 Lay on the Table.	—	P	P	P	P	P	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Yo	—	o	—	—	1
	2 The Previous Question.	Y	—	P	P	P	P	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Yo	o	o	—	—	2
	3 Definite Postponement.	Y	Yo	—	P	Po	P	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Yo	—	—	—	—	3
	4 Commit.	Y	Yo	Y	—	Po	P	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Yo	—	—	—	—	4
	5 Amend.	Y	Yo	Y	Y	o	P	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Yo	x	—	—	—	5
	6 Indefinite Postponement.	Y	Yo	Y	Y	—	—	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Yo	—	—	—	—	6
Incidental (2)	1 Questions of Order (Appeal).	o	o	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Y	Y	Y	Y	Po	—	c	—	o	1
	2 Objection to the Consideration of a Question.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Y	Y	Y	Y	Po	o	o	o	o	2
	3 The Reading of Papers.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Y	Y	Y	Y	Po	—	o	—	—	3
	4 Leave to Withdraw a Motion.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Y	Y	Y	Y	Po	—	o	—	—	4
	5 Suspension of the Rules.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Y	Y	Y	Y	P	o	o	—	—	5
	6 Amendment of an Amendment.	o	o	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Y	Y	Y	Y	Po	—	—	—	—	6
Privileged	1 To Fix the Time to which to Adjourn.	P	P*	P	P	Po	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	—	P	P	P	P	—	o	—	—	1
	2 Adjourn.	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	Y	—	P	P	P	—	o	—	—	2
	3 Rights and Privileges of Members.	Po	Po	Po	Po	Po	Po	P	P	P	P	P	P	Y	Y	—	P	Po	—	—	—	—	3
	4 Call for the Orders of the Day.	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	Y	Y	Y	—	o	x	o	o	o	4
	Reconsider.	Po	P*	P	P	P	P	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	—	—	—	p	—	—	R

NOTES.—* When this motion is debatable the Previous Question can be applied to it. (1) Any Subsidiary Motion can be applied to any Principal Motion. (2) Incidental Motions arise out of other motions, but are not applicable to them. x, To Amend rules two-thirds vote necessary. x, To make Special Order requires two-thirds vote. c, An Appeal is undebatable when made while Previous Question is pending, or when it relates to indecorum, priority of business, or transgression of rules of speaking. R, Motion to Reconsider undebatable when the question to be reconsidered is undebatable. † When the conditions of one motion can be imposed upon another motion, the first motion is said to apply to the second.

CHAPTER XX

PARLIAMENTARY LAW

SECTION I—INTRODUCTORY

I PROPOSE in this chapter to present to the student a practical epitome of parliamentary law. The outline given conforms in its general principles to the manuals used in legislative bodies throughout the United States. It is also concise in statement, compact in form, and suitable to the organization and government of any formal gathering or body. I shall show how to begin and conduct a meeting for the transaction of business, how to organize a permanent association, and how to regulate the proceedings of any legislative or deliberative body. Finally, I shall offer an example of a Constitution and By-Laws suitable for a lyceum or debating club.

Rules of Order.

SECTION II—INFORMAL ASSEMBLY

Let us begin with an informal gathering of men, without officers. At such a meeting some prominent man, who has been influential in calling the people together, will rise, briefly

Temporary Officers.

state the object of the gathering, and ask for nominations for temporary Chairman. In case only one nomination is made, the vote may be taken *viva voce*, but if several names are presented the vote should be by ballot. The nominee receiving the largest number of votes is elected.

The temporary Chairman takes the chair and calls for nominations for a temporary Secretary, who is elected in the same manner as the temporary Chairman. If the meeting is merely for the transaction of special business, as when a gathering of the employees is held to pass resolutions on the death of a member of a firm, the temporary officers remain until the purpose in view has been accomplished and the meeting adjourns. On the other hand, if the meeting has been called for the purpose of perfecting an organization, as a club of any sort, the work of the temporary officers continues until a Constitution and By-Laws have been framed and adopted. The work of framing the Constitution and By-Laws is generally entrusted to a special committee appointed for the purpose. The committee makes its report at a future meeting, and the assembly acts on the report (Sec. VII.–*A*). The Constitution prescribes the number of officers, the manner of their election, whether by ballot or otherwise, and their duties. Consequently, the first step to be taken after adopting the Constitution and By-Laws is the election of permanent officers.

Section III—Organization

A—Officers

The officers of a parliamentary body differ in their number and their duties according to the nature of its organization. Thus, the presiding officer in legislative assemblies is generally termed the Speaker. But other organized bodies usually have the following officers:

The presiding officer is called the President. It is his duty to occupy the chair, and to conduct the business of the organization in exact accordance with the Constitution, By-Laws, and the adopted Rules of Order. He should call the meeting to order, ascertain whether a quorum is present (Sec. III.–*C*), and formally declare the body open for business. 1. The President.

The President must recognize any member rising to address the Chair, must entertain all lawful motions, must rule upon questions of order, must enforce strict decorum, and must appoint all committees not otherwise provided for. When a motion is made and seconded the President must state it clearly to the assembly. To this end he may at any time require the submission of motions in writing. Having stated the motion, if debatable, he must give opportunity for discussion (Sec. VII.). This ended, the President must state the motion again, put it to vote, and announce the result.

The duties of the presiding officer require a perfect knowledge of the Constitution, By-Laws, and

Rules of Order. He should not only know these in order to render prompt and just decisions, but be able at all times to cite chapter and section in proof of his position. Smoothness in parliamentary proceedings depends largely upon this knowledge of the President in this respect.

2. The Vice-President.

In the absence of the President, the Vice-President takes his place and performs all the duties pertaining to the office. In the absence of the President and Vice-President, the Secretary should call the meeting to order and proceed to the selection of a temporary Chairman as stated in Section II.

3. The Secretary.

It is the duty of the Secretary, or, as he is sometimes called, the Clerk, to take charge of and keep safely all the books, papers, and documents of the organization. He must keep an exact record of the proceedings. He should have a list of the members and take note (generally by formal roll-call) of all absentees. He should inform the members of special meetings, and should notify each member who may be appointed on a committee, or elected to office. In his records or minutes, he should note the time and place of meeting and the name of the presiding officer. He should record every motion made and the result of it, and in general every important occurrence during the session. Any officer or member may call for the reading of any part of the Secretary's records relevant to a matter under discussion, or to any business in order at the time of the request for information contained in such records.

The Secretary's records constitute the minutes of a parliamentary meeting. When a body has regular meetings, the minutes of a given meeting are generally, though not always, read at the next succeeding meeting. By this delay, the Secretary is given time to transcribe his notes into permanent form and usually into the record. When the minutes are read, the President will ask the members if any errors or omissions are noted. If none are discovered, the President will say: "As no errors or omissions have been noted the minutes will, if there be no objection, stand approved as read. [Pause.] As no objection is made, they stand approved."

If any member perceives an error, he moves an amendment (Sec. V.—*B*–2), and if it is carried, the President declares the minutes approved as corrected. It is usual, however, to amend minutes in a less formal manner, the President saying: "You have heard the correction; if there be no objection, the minutes will be so amended. [Pause.] No objection having been made, the Clerk will so amend the minutes."

4. The Treasurer.

The duties of the Treasurer are to have charge of the finances of the organization, to collect dues, and to make disbursements in accord with the action of the assembly. The Constitution should fully and explicitly define the duties and limit the responsibilities of the Treasurer.

B—Committees

Organized bodies acting under parliamentary rules

recognize two kinds of committees—Standing and Special. Standing Committees are elected or appointed for a specified period, and their duties are continuous during their term of office. The duties of Standing Committees are partly executive and partly advisory or legislative. For example, they act for the organization within certain limits, they report to or advise the assembly, and they may embody their recommendations in formal resolutions to be acted upon by the body.

Standing.

Special Committees are elected or appointed to attend to some definitely specified business. These committees cease to exist when the end for which they were appointed is accomplished. Their term of office is at the will of the assembly and they may be discharged at any time, irrespective of the accomplishment of the purpose for which they were appointed.

Special.

C—Quorum

A Quorum is such a number of the officers or members of any body as is competent by law or constitution to transact business. In the Houses of the Congress of the United States, a majority of the members constitutes a quorum. In some bodies, as the House of Lords and the House of Commons of the English Parliament, a very small number of the members constitutes a quorum,—in the House of Lords, three out of about four hundred and fifty, and in the House of Commons, forty out of about six hundred and

Quorum Defined.

seventy are required. Whenever the assembly does not prescribe in its Constitution what number of members shall constitute a quorum, a majority is necessary for the transaction of any business except adjournment. In Committees of the Whole (Sec. VI.) the quorum is the same as in the regular session, but in all other committees a mere majority of the committee constitutes a quorum.

In assemblies which do not have any fixed number of members, as a mass meeting, there is no definite quorum. Those present can conduct business.

No Quorum.

Unless a quorum be present, a presiding officer should not call a meeting to order, except to fix the time and place for the next meeting and then to adjourn. If, at any time during the meeting, any member discovers that a quorum is not present, all business must be stopped at once, if the presiding officer's attention is called to the fact. The assembly can then only determine time and place for next meeting and then adjourn. If there is no objection by any member of the assembly, debate can go on, even if there is no longer a quorum, but no action can be taken on the question.

Opening the Meeting.

If a quorum is present at the designated time, the President takes the chair, and with a tap of the gavel says: "The meeting will please come to order." Generally the call to order is followed by roll-call. This serves the double purpose of registering absentees, and of furnishing proof that a quorum is present. Often meetings are opened by some kind of formal exer-

cises, such as singing and prayer, after which the President declares the meeting open for business.

D—Order

It is the duty of the President to maintain order during the meeting. If any member is out of order, the President should at once call his attention to the fact, and the member so called to order must immediately take his seat. If he does not do so, he may be reprimanded by the Chair or named to the assembly for action upon the breach of parliamentary decorum.

Decorum.

Any member who notices a violation of order can procure its correction. He must rise and address the President thus: "Mr. President, I rise to a Point of Order." After being recognized by the Chair, he states his point; the member speaking when the Point of Order is raised takes his seat until the President decides the question at issue. A Point of Order is always in order, and takes precedence of all questions, except questions of Personal Privilege, Motion to Adjourn, and to Fix the Time to which the Assembly shall Adjourn.

Point of Order.

E—On Obtaining the Floor

If a member wishes to obtain the floor in order to make a motion or speak on a question, he must rise in his place and address the Chair as follows: "Mr. President." It is then the duty of the President to grant him the floor if no one has it at the time. If several members rise and address the Chair, it is

the President's duty to give the floor to the one who first, from the correct position, addressed him, and this is construed to mean the first member who attracted the President's attention. As recognition is a matter of personal judgment, appeals are never taken from the President's ruling.

If any member objects to the remarks of a speaker on the ground that they are improper, the speaker cannot continue without permission of the assembly given by vote.

Unparliamentary Remarks.

Section IV—Order of Business

The order of business necessarily differs in deliberative bodies according to their character, but there are some regulations common to the majority of assemblies. The following is a typical and generally satisfactory order of business:

1. Call to order.
2. Roll-call.
3. Reading and approval of minutes of the previous meeting.
4. Reports of standing committees.
5. Reports of special committees.
6. Unfinished business.
7. New business.

Any order of exercises planned for a meeting is called the Orders of the Day. Orders are divided into two classes—General and Special. General Orders, by postponing some business to a certain day, or by planning a programme for that day, can be made by a majority.

General and Special Orders.

A Special Order suspends all the rules of the assembly that interfere with its consideration. On account of its importance a two-thirds vote is necessary to give to any question the character of a Special Order. In taking up the Orders of the Day the Special Orders are taken up first, and then the General Orders. A subject which has been made a Special Order takes precedence of all business, except the reading of the minutes.

Section V—Motions

General Motions.

All business is brought before an assembly either in the form of a motion made by some member, or in a written communication. In the Congress of the United States nearly all business is brought before the body in printed form, and after being submitted the resolution is turned over to a committee. In assemblies of less pretensions, motions are generally made orally by the members,—only motions to amend the constitution or by-laws being submitted in writing.

Though all business should, theoretically, be introduced by a motion, it is not customary to make a motion to hear the regular report of a standing committee or a communication to the assembly. If any member objects, however, a regular motion becomes necessary.

Motions are divided into four general classes:

A—Principal Motions

Principal Motions bring before the assembly, for

its consideration, any particular subject. A Principal Motion is not in order when any other question is before the assembly. It yields to all Subsidiary, Incidental, and Privileged Motions (Sec. V.–*B*, *C*, *D*). Principal Motions.

B—Subsidiary Motions

When a motion is made, it may be decided after brief debate. The assembly, however, may not act on the question at once, but may decide to dispose of it in some other way. Motions which apply to the disposition of Principal Questions are called Subsidiary Motions. These motions take precedence of a Principal Motion and must be decided before any action is taken on the Principal Question. They yield to Incidental and Privileged Motions. Arranged in the order of their precedence they are as follows: Subsidiary.

1. Lay on the Table.
2. Previous Question.
3. Definite Postponement.
4. Commit.
5. Amend.
6. Indefinite Postponement.

Any one of these motions can be offered when one of a lower order is pending, except that one cannot move to Amend when the question of Indefinite Postponement is before the assembly. No one of these motions can be made when one of a higher order is pending.

We shall now consider these motions individually, and in the inverse order of their precedence.

A motion to Postpone Indefinitely, if carried, disposes of the question to which it refers, without a direct vote upon such question. The effect of an affirmative vote on this motion is the same as a negative vote on the Principal Question to which it applies. It is valuable as a test of strength between two sides. If the motion to Postpone Indefinitely is lost, the negative vote is a measure of strength in support of the Principal Motion. The motion to Postpone Indefinitely takes precedence only of Principal Questions and Questions of Privilege (Sec. V.—*D*–2). It cannot be amended, and it opens to debate the question to which it applies. It yields to any Privileged, Incidental, or Subsidiary Motion, except the Motion to Amend.

1. Indefinite Postponement.

A Motion to Amend must be phrased so as to provide for the alteration of the words of the motion to which it applies. But a Motion to Amend can itself be amended; consequently, an amendment to an amendment consists in altering the words of the amendment and not those of the original motion.

2. To Amend.

A Motion to Amend takes precedence only of the question which it is proposed to amend. It yields to any Privileged, Incidental, or Subsidiary Motion, except that of Indefinite Postponement. Any motion can be amended, except Incidental Questions, Motions to Adjourn (when unqualified), to Amend an Amendment, to Postpone Indefinitely, to Reconsider, and for the Previous Question.

An amendment may consist in Adding, Striking

Out, Adding and Striking Out, Dividing the Question, or Moving a Substitute. If one amendment is lost, any other amendment, however like in form to the defeated amendment, can be made, unless it is identical in its writing to the former amendment. If a motion has been amended it is still open to other amendments. Accordingly, if an amendment has been amended, it is still open to other amendments; but an Amendment to an Amendment can not itself be amended. How to Amend.

It requires a two-thirds vote to amend the Constitution, By-Laws, or Rules of Order of an assembly; and generally such an amendment must be submitted in writing, and must be read at three successive meetings of the body, before it comes up for discussion and vote. Constitution and By-Laws.

When a motion or resolution that has objectionable features, but is, on the whole, satisfactory to the assembly, is presented, it is customary to Commit or Refer the resolution to a committee. If the resolution comes under the province of any Standing Committee, it should be referred to that committee. Otherwise it should be referred to a Special Committee. If there is doubt as to which committee should take cognizance of the resolution, a motion to refer it to a Standing Committee takes precedence of other motions regarding it. 3. To Commit.

Often, however, the question is such that it should be discussed by the whole assembly. But if the assembly attempted to discuss it in regular session, innumerable amendments would Committee of the Whole.

be made, and the progress would be very slow. In such an event, it is in order to move to Commit to a Committee of the Whole; or, as the motion is usually put, To go into a Committee of the Whole. This motion means that the assembly resolves itself into a committee, consisting of all the members, and discusses the question informally. When a decision is reached, the Committee by vote goes back to the original session, and through its officers makes its report. The motion to Refer to Committee of the Whole takes precedence of the motion to Refer to a Standing Committee, or a Special Committee.

The motion to Commit yields to all Privileged and Incidental Questions, and to all Subsidiary Questions, except to Amend and to Postpone Indefinitely, of which two motions it takes precedence. It can be amended by changing the number of the members of the committee or by giving the committee instructions. It is debatable, and opens for discussion the entire subject to which it refers.

4. Definite Postponement.

The motion of Definite Postponement is equivalent to the two motions of Laying on the Table and Taking from the Table. When a motion is made which the assembly would rather discuss at some future time, it moves a Definite Postponement to a certain day. When that day and the appointed hour arrive, the postponed question takes precedence of any other question, except those that come under the head of Privileged Questions. By a two-thirds vote the assembly can take up the subject before the day to which it was postponed.

The motion to Postpone to a certain day yields to all Privileged and Incidental Questions, and to all Subsidiary Questions, except to Commit, to Amend, and to Postpone Indefinitely, of which three it takes precedence.

The motion is debatable, but should allow only so much debate on the Principal Question as is needed by the assembly in order to reach a conclusion as to the propriety of the postponement.

5. Previous Question.

The name—Previous Question—is a technical term. It does not mean some question previously decided, but refers to the question under discussion. This motion was originally intended to dispose of a question by a negative vote. Thus, in the English Parliament, this motion is made in order to suppress statement or debate by a negative vote. But the usage in the United States Congress is entirely different. The motion of Previous Question is made there to stop debate on a question. Some member moves the Previous Question. The Speaker then asks, after the motion has been seconded, "Shall the question now be put?" If a negative vote is the result the effect is the same as if the Previous Question had not been moved. But if the vote is affirmative the effect is quite different. If the pending question is the main question, it is at once put to vote. If the main question has motions to Amend or Commit appended to it, when the Previous Question is decided, all the appended motions to Amend and to Commit must first be submitted. The main question is not put if the motion to Commit received an affirmative vote.

If, however, the mover of the Previous Question states specifically that the motion is to apply only to the amendment, then, after the vote on the amendment has been taken, the force of the Previous Question is exhausted. Also, when any other motion except to Commit or to Amend is pending, the effect of the Previous Question is merely to bring the pending question to a vote; and the main question, after this vote has been taken, is still open. The motion for the Previous Question is undebatable and requires a two-thirds vote. It takes precedence of all debatable questions, and yields to all Privileged and Incidental Questions, and to the motion to Lay on the Table. It cannot have any other Subsidiary Motion applied to it.

6. To Lay on the Table.

When an assembly does not wish to consider a question at the time it is presented, and yet does not desire to Postpone to a Definite Time, a motion to Lay on the Table is in order. A majority can at any future meeting take the question from the Table.

The effect of the motion to Lay on the Table is to carry the main question and all its appended motions to the Table. The main motion cannot be separated from its appended motions, nor can any one of them be Laid on the Table. The motion to Lay on the Table applies to the whole and to every part of the motion and its riders.

Laying a Motion to Amend the Minutes on the Table, however, does not carry the Minutes to the Table. If an appeal (Sec. V.—*C*-6) is Laid on the Table, the decision of the Chair for the time

being is sustained, for the original question is not carried to the Table with the Appeal. Finally, when a motion to Reconsider (Sec. V.–*E*.) is Laid on the Table, the original question is left just where it was before the reconsideration was moved.

The motion to Lay on the Table is undebatable, and cannot have any other Subsidiary Motion applied to it. A vote in the affirmative cannot be reconsidered. This motion takes precedence of all the other Subsidiary Motions, and yields to all Privileged and Incidental Questions.

C—Incidental Motions

Incidental Questions are questions which arise out of other questions, and must be decided before the question which gave rise to them. They yield to Privileged Questions and cannot be amended or debated. An exception to this rule is made in the case of an Appeal; this is debatable.

Incidental Questions are:

1. Questions of Order (Appeal).
2. Objection to the Consideration of a Question.
3. Reading of Papers.
4. Leave to Withdraw a Motion.
5. Suspension of the Rules.
6. Amendment to an Amendment.

These motions will be discussed in the inverse order of their arrangement.

An Amendment is a Subsidiary Motion; but an Amendment to an Amendment is an Incidental Motion. (For discussion of an Amendment to an Amendment, see Sec. V.—*B*–2). 1. Amendment.

When an assembly desires to arrange for the consideration of business which some section of the Constitution or By-Laws, or the adopted Rules of Order, does not permit, it is customary to suspend the rules. This can be done only by a two-thirds vote, and for a definite purpose. No rules that give any right to a minority as small as one-third shall be suspended, except by unanimous consent.

2. Suspension of the Rules.

A motion to Suspend the Rules is undebatable, cannot be amended, and cannot be twice introduced for the same purpose at the same meeting. A vote on this motion cannot be reconsidered. No Subsidiary Motion can be applied to it.

When a motion has been regularly made, seconded, and stated to the assembly, the maker cannot withdraw it, except by unanimous consent. If this is not given, he may make a motion to have Leave to Withdraw the Motion. This motion cannot be amended, and is undebatable. An affirmative vote takes the question entirely from the assembly.

3. Leave to Withdraw a Motion.

Members of an assembly have the right to demand that every paper laid before it for its consideration be read once. If a member desires any other paper or document read, either for his own information or for that of the assembly, he must obtain permission to have it read by a motion to that effect. Such a motion is undebatable, and cannot be amended.

4. Reading Papers.

A motion may be made presenting a question which the assembly does not desire to discuss. In

such a case a member rises and addresses the Chair, with the words: "I object to the consideration of the question." This motion can be applied only to Principal Motions (Sec. V.–*A*.). It is in order when another member has the floor. It does not require to be seconded. The President at once puts the question: "Will the assembly consider the question?" A two-thirds vote in the negative dismisses the question for the remainder of that session. The President, without action by a member, may exercise the discretionary right to put this question to the assembly. This motion cannot have any Subsidiary Motion applied to it.

5. Objections to Consider.

If any member's remarks are not relevant to the pending question, or if he commits a breach of the Rules of Order, or if the Chair entertains a motion that is not in order, any other member has the right to call for the proper order. He rises and addresses the Chair, saying: "I rise to a Point of Order." If another member is speaking, such member must resume his seat until the Point of Order has been stated to the Chair. The President then decides the question, whether the point is valid or not. The member who has been speaking now rises again and continues his speech, if the Point of Order was not decided against him.

6. Questions of Order.

A Point of Order is in order at all times, even when a member is speaking, providing the Point of Order is concerned with some breach just committed.

If, however, when a Point of Order has been decided by the President, some member objects to his

decision, the member rises and addresses the Chair thus: "I appeal from the decision of the Chair." If the Appeal is seconded, the President at once puts the question to the assembly: "Shall the decision of the Chair be the decision of the assembly?" An Appeal is undebatable if it refers to a transgression of the Rules of Speaking, or the priority of business, or if the Previous Question is before the assembly. In all other cases it is debatable. On an Appeal a member can speak but once, and the President can give the reasons for his decision without leaving the Chair. The President is allowed to vote, and a tie vote sustains the decision of the Chair. This is on the ground that half the members should not be allowed to overthrow the decision of the half which includes the President.

Appeal.

When the Appeal is debatable, the motion to Lay on the Table and the Previous Question can be applied to it, and when decided in the affirmative they affect only the Appeal. An Appeal cannot be amended. A vote on an Appeal may be Reconsidered (Sec. V.–*E.*). An Appeal is not in order when another Appeal is pending.

D—Privileged Motions

There is a class of motions, which from their character are called Privileged Motions. These motions are always in order and take precedence of all other motions. On account of this privileged character these motions are undebatable, except when they refer to the rights of members. In their order of precedence among themselves, they are as follows:

1. To Fix the Time to which the Assembly shall Adjourn.

2. To Adjourn (when unqualified).

3. Questions of the Rights and Privileges of Members.

4. Call for the Orders of the Day.

We shall discuss these various motions in the inverse order of their precedence among themselves.

If the discussion of a question has been assigned to a particular day or hour, when that day or hour arrives this question becomes the Order of the Day. If there are several such assignments for a day, they become the Orders of the Day.

1. Call for Orders of the Day.

The effect of an affirmative vote upon a call for the Orders of the Day is to stop all discussion of the pending question. It has, therefore, the same effect upon it as an adjournment would have. The assembly discusses the Orders of the Day in the order in which they were assigned. By vote the assembly can, of course, appoint another time for considering the Orders of the Day.

A negative vote dispenses with the consideration of the Orders of the Day, in so far as they interfere with the consideration of the pending question.

Call for the Orders of the Day takes precedence of all Principal, Subsidiary, and Incidental Motions, but it yields to the Motions to Fix the Time to which to Adjourn, to Adjourn, Questions of Rights and Privileges of Members, and the Motion to Reconsider. It is undebatable, and cannot be amended.

The programme of business usually adopted by

assemblies is a common form of the Orders of the Day. When the time arrives for carrying out the programme, the President should at once put the question: "Will the assembly now take up the Orders of the Day?" If there is some important business pending which the members wish to consider they will vote negatively, and then for the time being set aside the Orders of the Day.

A call for the Orders of the Day does not need to be seconded, and is in order when a member has the floor.

Orders Classified. Orders are divided into two classes, —Special Orders and General Orders.

General Orders can be made by a majority by postponing certain questions to certain times, or by arranging a programme for a specified day. General Orders cannot in any way interfere with the established rules of an assembly. It requires a two-thirds vote to make any question a Special Order. But a Special Order takes precedence of all the rules of the assembly that interfere with its consideration at the time specified. It is not in order to make a Special Order for a certain time that will conflict with any previous Special Order for that time.

In taking up the Orders of the Day, the Special Orders must be considered first, and the General Orders afterward.

Questions of Privilege must not be confounded with Privileged Questions. Questions of Privilege

2. Rights and Privileges of Members. relate to the rights and privileges of the assembly as a whole, and of its individual members. A Question of Privilege may

be raised by any member whose membership has been disputed, whose rights have been interfered with, or whose honor has been assailed. A Question of Privilege is debatable, is decided by the Chair, and is subject to Appeal. A Question of Privilege takes precedence of all other motions, except the Motions to Fix the Time to which to Adjourn, and to Adjourn, to which it yields. Any Subsidiary Motion can be applied to it, and all can be decided without affecting the question which was pending when the Question of Privilege was raised. Questions of Privilege take precedence of Points of Order.

3. Adjournment.

The Motion to Adjourn (when unqualified) takes precedence of all Principal, Subsidiary, Incidental, and Privileged Motions, except the Motion to Fix the Time to which to Adjourn, to which it yields. It is not debatable; no Subsidiary Motion can be applied to it; and a vote on it cannot be Reconsidered. A simple Motion to Adjourn can be made when any business is being discussed. If the motion does not close a session of the assembly, the question which was under discussion at Adjournment is the first question to be discussed at the next meeting, after the Minutes have been read. If the Motion to Adjourn closes the session of an assembly which has more than one session a year, the question under consideration at Adjournment is taken up at the next session, under the head of Unfinished Business. If the Motion to Adjourn closes the session of an assembly which does not have more than one session a year; or if it closes the session of an assembly whose mem-

bership changes, a new motion is required to bring the question affected by the Adjournment again under discussion.

If there is no motion before the assembly, a Motion to Adjourn may name time and place to which to adjourn. In this case it loses its privileged character, and becomes a Principal Motion. It can be debated, amended, or have any Subsidiary or Incidental Motion applied to it.

A Motion to Fix the Time to which to Adjourn takes precedence of all motions, and is in order even after a Motion to Adjourn has been made, if the President has not announced the vote. If made when another question is pending, it is undebatable. It can be amended by altering the time. If it is made when no other question is pending, it stands as a Principal Motion and can be debated.

4. To Fix the Time.

E—Reconsideration

Besides the motions we have classified as Principal, Subsidiary, Incidental, and Privileged, there is one motion,—that to Reconsider,—which demands our attention.

The Motion to Reconsider, which is unknown in English deliberative assemblies, is in common use in the United States, and is very valuable for correcting hasty and ill-judged action. Nearly every motion, except a Motion to Adjourn, can be Reconsidered. If a Motion to Adjourn has been passed, a vote would apply to a

To What Motions Applicable.

Reconsideration of the vote and not to the Motion to Adjourn.

In like manner a Motion to Lay on the Table cannot be Reconsidered. If the vote was affirmative, the same result could be accomplished by moving to Take from the Table as by moving a Reconsideration. If the vote was negative, it could be repeated, like the Motion to Adjourn. In general, a vote cannot be Reconsidered after it has determined the character of subsequent action.

Who May Move to Reconsider.

The questions as to who can move a Reconsideration and when such motions are permissible are much mooted. They should be decided by the rules of every deliberative body. Some assemblies allow only those members who voted with the prevailing side to move a Reconsideration, and only on the same or next succeeding day. Of course, if any one could move a Reconsideration at any subsequent time, the opposition, though in the minority of the enrolled members, might wait until some session in which they had a majority, and then, by moving a Reconsideration, might reverse the will of the assembly. On the other hand, since a vote can be Reconsidered only once, a member of the prevailing side might move a Reconsideration on the day when the original vote was taken, while his side still had a majority, and would thus cut off further action at any subsequent time. Thus, also, the will of the majority might be overthrown. A safe rule which obviates both these difficulties allows any member to move a Reconsideration on the same day as the original

motion, or on the next succeeding day. If the Reconsideration is moved by a member of the prevailing party on the same day as the original motion the vote is not taken until the next succeeding day.

Affected by Other Motions.

The Motion to Reconsider cannot be amended; and is debatable or not, just as the original question is debatable or not. When debatable, it opens for discussion the entire subject of the question to be Reconsidered. If the Previous Question is moved while the Motion to Reconsider is pending, it relates only to the Motion to Reconsider, and does not apply to the question to be Reconsidered. If a Motion to Reconsider be Laid on the Table, it does not carry the pending question with it. If a motion which has had an amendment appended to it (whether the amendment was carried or rejected) comes up again for discussion as the result of a Motion to Reconsider, the Principal Motion must be Reconsidered first, and the amendment afterward.

Section VI—Committees

Standing and Special Committees

In deliberative assemblies which have many important and difficult questions to consider, much time can be saved by having the preliminary work done by committees. The general work of a committee is to consider the question submitted to it and to make a report to the assembly when a conclusion has been reached. Not only is time saved

by committees, but much better results are accomplished.

There are two kinds of committees—Standing Committees and Special Committees. The former are elected or appointed for a definite term, and have the consideration of certain specified classes of questions submitted to them, so that when a question comes up before an assembly it is referred to the appropriate Standing Committee for preliminary consideration.

Standing Committees.

Special Committees are appointed for the conduct of special business, or for the consideration of some particular question. When they have finished the work assigned to them they cease to exist.

Special Committees.

A committee may be elected by the assembly or appointed by the President. When a member makes a motion for the formation of a committee, he usually specifies whether the members of the committee are to be elected or appointed. If he does not so specify, it is understood that the committee is to be appointed by the Chair.

Committees in General.

The number of members composing a committee is usually prescribed in the Constitution. In the case of Standing Committees that is the rule, but the number may be specified by the maker of the motion, in the appointment of a Special Committee. The number of members composing a committee should be uneven, in order to prevent a tie vote. The size of a committee will depend on the nature and amount of the business referred to it; but as a

general rule it should not be less than three or more than seven.

When a committee is appointed by the President it is customary for the maker of the motion to be placed first on the list of members of the committee, which means, by courtesy of the other members, that he is to be Chairman of the committee. The appointment of the maker of the motion as Chairman of the committee, though customary, has disadvantages. The appointed Chairman may not be as well qualified for the position as other members of the assembly. Moreover, the fact that the mover of a resolution is by courtesy Chairman of the committee appointed upon the resolution admits of unfair scheming to accomplish personal ends. The President of the assembly should endeavor to appoint on the committee members who represent all the interests of the body at large. A member who is professedly hostile to the measure for which the committee is to be formed should not be appointed.

A majority of a committee constitute a quorum, and a majority of a quorum can carry any measure. Hence a minority of the committee may determine upon a report; but the report should not be submitted to the assembly until it is approved by the majority of the committee.

Every committee should have a Chairman and a Secretary. If no member has been delegated to make the report of the committee to the assembly, that duty devolves upon the Chairman.

When a committee is ready to make its report, it signifies its readiness to the assembly, and a motion

is in order to Receive the Report. If this motion is carried, the report is entirely out of the hands of the committee, which is dissolved if it was appointed to consider the single question of the report. In some assemblies there are specified times for receiving reports, and hence no Motion to Receive is necessary. When the report comes before the assembly for discussion, it may be Adopted, Amended and Adopted, Referred back to the committee, or Rejected, and the committee dismissed.

Committee of the Whole.

Whenever a complicated question, or one that would necessitate more discussion than is expedient at that juncture, comes up for consideration, the assembly resolves itself into a Committee of the Whole. In this committee the members are not restricted by the rules of speaking that apply in the assembly, and hence the discussion may be more general and less formal. A motion is required to go into a Committee of the Whole. As soon as the motion is carried, the committee should at once elect a Chairman and Secretary. Often the President of the assembly informally appoints the maker of the motion as Chairman of the committee.

The only motions in order in a Committee of the Whole are the motions to Amend, to Adopt, and to Rise and Report. The assembly cannot adjourn. In a Committee of the Whole every member can speak as often as he wishes, and each time as long as he would be allowed to speak on the same motion when considered in the assembly.

A quorum in a Committee of the Whole is the same as that in the assembly. When a quorum is

not present, the committee can no longer conduct business.

When a Committee of the Whole is ready to report, a motion is made to Rise and Report. The President of the assembly takes the Chair, and the Chairman of the committee makes the report. The report is then acted on by the assembly in the same manner as reports of any other committee.

Section VII—Debate

Debate.

When a member wishes to make a motion to an assembly, he rises and addresses the Chair in the manner prescribed in Sec. III.–*E*. The President then calls for a second. If the motion is seconded the President at once announces to the assembly the question for discussion. No discussion can be carried on until the question has been announced from the Chair. Generally the President takes no part in the debate, except when there is an Appeal from his decision; at which time he has a right to state his position to the assembly. At all other times he should take no part in debate, for he is supposed to be neutral; and he would soon lose his claim to neutrality if he participated in debate in his official capacity. If the President desires to participate in the discussion or to make any extended statement to the assembly, he should call the Vice-President, or some member, temporarily to the Chair, and speak, as a member, from the floor of the assembly. It is allowable for the President to state to the assembly matters of fact in his knowledge. He should inform the members on all

points of order or of precedence. He may do this, both when he is called upon to do so and when he thinks such information necessary.

When any member wishes to speak on the question, he must rise, address the Chair, and be recognized as if he were going to make a motion. When several members rise to speak at the same time, precedence is to be determined by the rules given in Sec. III.—*E*. It is customary for the President to give the floor first to the maker of the motion, or to the member who submitted the report of the committee. When no other member wishes to speak, or when every other member has exhausted his right to speak on the question, the maker of the motion is allowed to make the final speech.

If a member yields the floor he has no right to again demand the floor. He has relinquished his right to it, and can regain the floor only in the usual way. If he is allowed to speak only once on a question, he has, of course, exhausted his right to the floor. A member who has relinquished the floor to some one else is generally granted the floor for a second time by courtesy of the President.

Right to the Floor.

A member should not mention another member by name, but should designate him by mentioning the State which he represents (as in Congress), by referring to him as the last speaker on the negative, or in some equivalent phrase.

Courtesy.

Every member of an assembly has the right to

express his opinion upon any debatable question.

Right to Speak. All remarks must be relevant to the subject upon which they are offered.

A member upon the floor has no right to animadvert on any of the proceedings of an assembly or on any of its previous determinations, unless he intends to close his remarks with a motion to rescind such determinations. Moreover, no member should use personalities. He may answer remarks in a spirited and determined manner, but when he uses the privilege of the floor to abuse and vilify another member he at once becomes out of order. If the remarks of a member are irrelevant or personal, a question of order may be raised, and he may be required to cease speaking.

Personalities.

In all deliberative assemblies it is the general rule that a member may speak twice on debatable questions, except on questions of order, and on them he can speak only once. This rule applies only when the assembly has no rules of debate of its own. In Congress a member can speak only once on any question. A member may speak oftener by the permission of the assembly. A member may rise and explain anything which has been misunderstood, even though he may have exhausted his right to debate the question. In so doing remarks must be strictly confined to explanation and correction. The right to explain does not carry with it the right to interrupt another member in the midst of his speech. If the speaker relinquishes the floor to his interrupter he gives up entirely his claim to the floor.

Limits to Speaking.

Debate is not necessarily closed by the President putting the question. Nor is it closed until both the affirmative and negative vote have been taken. A member may therefore claim the floor at any time before the final vote, unless debate has been closed by any of the following methods:

By an Objection to the Consideration of the Question (Sec. V.; *C*–5).

By a Motion to Lay on the Table (Sec. V.; *B*–6).

By Moving the Previous Question (Sec. V.; *B*–5).

By the assembly adopting an order limiting debate, or an order to close debate at a specified time.

An assembly usually presents in its By-Laws a certain limit for speech.

The following questions are undebatable:

All Privileged Questions, except those relating to the Rights and Privileges of members (Sec. V.; *D*–2). **Questions not Debatable.**

All Incidental Questions, except an Appeal when it does not relate to indecorum or priority of business (Sec. V.; *C*–6).

The Motion to Lay on the Table (Sec. V.; *B*–6).

The Previous Question (Sec. V.; *B*–5).

The Motion to Reconsider (Sec. V.–*E*.).

Section VIII—Voting

When the assembly is ready to vote on a question, the President states it. There are various ways of stating the question. Generally the President puts it in this manner: "It has been moved and seconded that [here the question **Putting the Question.**

is stated]. All in favor will please say Aye. Those opposed, No." The President should then announce the result of the vote. The usual forms of announcing the decision are: "The motion is carried," or "The resolution is adopted," or else "The Ayes have it."

If any member doubts the accuracy of the decision of the President, he rises and calls for a Division. The President then announces that a Division has been called for. He requests all those in favor of the motion to rise. The Secretary counts the vote. He then requests all those opposed to rise. The Secretary then counts the negative vote, and announces the result of the vote to the President, who announces it to the assembly.

Right to Vote.

It is the right and duty of every member of the assembly to vote, unless he is personally interested in the pending question. If, however, several members are personally interested in a pending question, they have the right to vote, otherwise a minority might impeach a majority, because those personally interested could not vote. No member may vote by proxy.

The Vote.

If there is a tie vote, *i. e.*, if as many voted in the affirmative as in the negative, the vote is lost. Under such circumstances, however, the President may vote, but must cast his vote with the affirmative, thus deciding the question in the affirmative. If, by the President voting in the negative, the vote is tied, he may so vote and thus defeat the motion. The President may vote on an Appeal if by so doing the vote is tied. In

such a case the Chair is sustained, for the form of stating an appeal is: "Shall the decision of the Chair be the decision of the assembly?" and a majority is required to overthrow a decision of the President.

Another form of voting is by ballot. A ballot vote is taken only when it is required by the Constitution or is commanded by the assembly. In ballot voting the President appoints two or more Tellers to distribute blank ballots. On these the members, including the President, write their votes. The Tellers collect the ballots, count the votes, and report the result to the President, by whom it is announced to the assembly. Members representing each side of the question should be chosen as Tellers. In elections, ballot voting is generally used. When there is only one candidate for an office, and the Constitution provides that elections be made by ballot, it is customary for some member to move that the Secretary cast the ballot on the name of Mr. —— for —— (office). If any one objects to this, however, the usual methods of ballot must be gone through with.

Voting by Ballot.

A third form of voting is by Ayes and Nays. In this method, the Secretary calls the roll, and each member responds Yes or No. The Secretary then reads and checks the list of members and their vote in order to avoid errors. Finding all correct, he announces the result to the President, who announces it to the assembly.

Ayes and Nays.

CHAPTER XXI

CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS

OF THE

DEBATING CLUB

CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE I

NAME AND OBJECT

SECTION I. The name of this organization shall be The ——— Debating Club.

SEC. II. Its objects shall be:

1. To conduct formal debates among its members.
2. To familiarize them with science, art, literature, and current events.
3. To train them in the appropriate expression of their ideas.
4. To give them practice in Parliamentary Law.

ARTICLE II

MEMBERSHIP

SEC. I. Any young man of intelligence and good character, above the age of ——— years, may become an active member.

ARTICLE III

OFFICERS AND THEIR DUTIES

SEC. I. The officers of this Club shall be a President, Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer, Sergeant-at-Arms, and an Executive Committee of ——— (usually five) members.

SEC. II. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Club, and at the request of ——— members may call a special meeting. He shall appoint the Censor and Judges of Debate (usually three), and the Extemporaneous Speakers. He shall be Chairman, *ex-officio*, of the Executive Committee.

SEC. III. The Vice-President shall perform the duties of the President in his absence or in case of other inability.

SEC. IV. The Secretary shall keep a record of the proceedings of each meeting, and shall perform all other duties usually pertaining to his office. He shall report all absentees and delinquents to the Membership Committee.

SEC. V. The Treasurer shall collect and account

for all moneys due the Club, and shall disburse all sums voted by the Club. He shall render a bi-monthly report, and on completion of his term of office present a written report of the state of the treasury.

SEC. VI. The Sergeant-at-Arms shall receive visitors, and perform the office of Teller at all elections. He shall aid the President in preserving order and decorum.

SEC. VII. The Executive Committee shall have charge of the debate and literary exercises, prepare a programme for each meeting, and assign the members their respective parts.

SEC. VIII. The Censor shall act as Critic of Debate and other literary exercises. He may criticise the delivery of any production, the mispronunciation of words, and any faults in spoken or written composition. He may also criticise the general conduct of officers and members during the sessions of the Club. He shall report at the close of the Literary Programme. [Note: Should the exercises of the Club or Society constitute a part of a collegiate course, in which the Instructor acts as Censor, the Censor is the ranking officer, and possesses absolute control and direction of the proceedings.]

SEC. IX. The Judges of Debate shall sit in judgment upon the merits of the discussion, and shall render a decision at its close. Conference among the Judges is permitted.

ARTICLE IV

COMMITTEES

SEC. I. There shall be two Standing Committees —a Membership and a Parliamentary Committee—to consist of —— (usually three) members each, who shall be appointed by the President immediately after his election.

SEC. II. The Parliamentary Committee shall provide, at intervals, questions of Parliamentary Practice for discussion in open debate.

SEC. III. The Membership Committee shall be the sole medium through which the Club may receive applications for membership. It shall also be the duty of this Committee to inquire into the merits of all applicants, and in its discretion to recommend persons as candidates for membership. It shall impose all fines for absence and neglect of duty.

ARTICLE V

ELECTION OF MEMBERS

SEC. I. Election of members shall be by ballot, and shall require a three-fourths ($\frac{3}{4}$) vote of the members present to elect.

SEC. II. All elections of applicants to membership shall be conducted in Executive Session.

SEC. III. An opportunity shall be given each member to speak on every application.

ARTICLE VI

ELECTION OF OFFICERS

SEC. I. Election of officers shall be by ballot, semi-annually, January and June.

ARTICLE VII

DISCIPLINE

SEC. I. Any member absenting himself from any meeting, or failing to take the part assigned to him in debate or on the Literary Programme, shall be fined —— cents, unless he present a satisfactory excuse to the Membership Committee.

SEC. II. All members absenting themselves from three consecutive meetings shall be suspended, unless they shall present a satisfactory excuse to the Membership Committee.

SEC. III. Any member guilty of disorder during the session shall be fined, said fine not to exceed —— cents for any single offence.

SEC. IV. When the unpaid fines and dues of any member shall exceed —— cents, he shall be suspended, after written notice from the Treasurer, and if the debt remain unpaid for six weeks he shall be notified by the Treasurer that he is expelled.

ARTICLE VIII

RULES OF ORDER

SEC. I. This Club shall be governed by ——

Rules of Order, except in matters provided for in the Constitution and By-Laws.

ARTICLE IX

AMENDMENTS

SEC. I. All amendments to this Constitution and By-Laws shall be in writing and must be submitted to the Secretary. Each amendment must be read at three consecutive meetings, and shall require a two-thirds (⅔) vote of members present to pass.

BY-LAWS

ARTICLE I

MEETINGS

SEC. I. This Club shall convene every ——— evening, at ——— P.M. in ———, except during the months of July and August.

SEC. II. A special meeting may be called by the President, as provided in Art. 3, Sec. II of the Constitution.

ARTICLE II

QUORUM

SEC. I. Seven members shall constitute a Quorum to transact business. (Any number may be substituted for that given.)

ARTICLE III

FINANCE

SEC. I. The dues of this Club shall be ——— cents per week, payable weekly in advance, except during the months of July and August.

SEC. II. During leave of absence all dues shall be remitted.

ARTICLE IV

RULES FOR SPEAKING

SEC. I. The leading debaters shall each be allowed fifteen (15) minutes, ten (10) minutes to open, and five (5) to close.

SEC. II. The other debaters shall each be allowed fifteen (15) minutes, in which to present their arguments.

SEC. III. No member volunteering to debate shall be allowed to speak more than once, and then only for a period not exceeding ten (10) minutes, except by permission of the Club.

SEC. IV. Each of the extemporaneous speakers shall be allowed ten (10) minutes.

SEC. V. No member shall be allowed more than five (5) minutes to discuss any motion.

ARTICLE V

ORDER OF EXERCISES

1. Call to Order.
2. Roll-Call.
3. Reading of Minutes.
4. Report of Officers.

5. Report of Committees.
   a. Executive.
   b. Membership.
   c. Parliamentary.
   d. Special.
6. Communications.
7. Unfinished business.
8. New Business.
9. Literary Programme.

ARTICLE VI

ORDERS OF THE DAY

SEC. I. At ——— o'clock the Literary Programme shall be the Order of the Day, and shall be as follows:

a. Extemporaneous Speaking.
b. Declamation.
c. Essay.
d. Appointment of Judges of Debate.
e. Debate.
f. Voluntary Debate.
g. Reading.
h. Report of Judges.
i. Censor's Report.

ARTICLE VII

TO AMEND ORDERS OF THE DAY

SEC. I. From ——— until ——— o'clock the Literary Programme shall be the Order of the Day, and can be laid aside during this time only by the unanimous consent of the members present.

PART III

SELECTIONS FOR PRACTICE

PART III

SELECTIONS FOR PRACTICE

I PRESENT on the following pages a variety of selections. They have been chosen with particular reference to their availability for practice. There has been no attempt to embody in this portion of the book the representative orations of any country or period. Such a task is beyond the limits of the present volume. An acquaintance with the masterpieces of oratory is, however, of the greatest value, and the student is referred to the series entitled *The World's Orators* (Putnam's, New York).

EULOGY ON HAMILTON. GOUVERNEUR MORRIS.—" Brethren of the Cincinnati—there lies our chief! Let him still be our model. Like him, after long and faithful public services, let us cheerfully perform the social duties of private life. Oh! he was mild and gentle. In him there was no offence; no guile. His generous hand and heart were open to all.

" Gentlemen of the bar—you have lost your brightest ornament. Cherish and imitate his example. While, like him, with justifiable and with laudable zeal, you pursue the interests of your clients, remember, like him, the eternal principle of justice.

"Fellow-citizens—you have long witnessed his professional conduct, and felt his unrivalled eloquence. You know how well he performed the duties of a citizen—you know that he never courted your favor by adulation or the sacrifice of his own judgment. You have seen him contending against you, and saving your dearest interests, as it were, in spite of yourselves. And you now feel and enjoy the benefits resulting from the firm energy of his conduct. Bear this testimony to the memory of my departed friend. I charge you to protect his fame. It is all he has left—all that these poor orphan children will inherit from their father. But, my countrymen, that fame may be a rich treasure to you also. Let it be the test by which to examine those who solicit your favor. Disregarding professions, view their conduct, and on a doubtful occasion ask, Would Hamilton have done this thing?

"You all know how he perished. On this last scene I cannot, I must not dwell. It might excite emotions too strong for your better judgment. Suffer not your indignation to lead to any act which might again offend the insulted majesty of the laws. On his part, as from his lips, though with my voice—for his voice you will hear no more—let me entreat you to respect yourselves.

"And now, ye ministers of the everlasting God, perform your holy office, and commit these ashes of our departed brother to the bosom of the grave."—*Address to the Cincinnati, 1804.*

CALVERT AND THE MARYLAND CHARTER. William George Read.—"From Jamestown, Calvert turned towards the unoccupied territory, which borders the majestic Chesapeake, to the north of the Potomac. The enterprise of Smith and others had already partially explored it, and disclosed its extent, fertility, and beauty.

No European settlement had as yet been established there; and the rights of the British crown, as recognized in the international law of Europe, to countries occupied only by savages, had been revested by the cancelling of the old Virginia charter. State policy, therefore, as well as regard for Calvert, whose moderation and sincerity seem to have conciliated universal esteem, dictated compliance with his petition for a grant, of which the terms were left to be adjusted by himself. The charter of Maryland, the undoubted production of his pen, is the fair and lasting monument of his wisdom and virtues. His military exploits may be lost in the blinding blaze of England's martial glory; his sacrifices to conviction may be merged in those of her myriad martyrs; but his charter shall endure on our statute book, so long as the blue firmament of the American flag shall sparkle with the brilliant beams of the Maryland star!"—*An Oration on the Anniversary of the Settlement of Maryland, 1842.*

THE SONS OF GEORGIA. BISHOP ELLIOT.—"For the first time in her history, may Georgia now look for a native population—a population born upon her soil and loving her because they call her mother. Not that those who have emigrated into her do not love her—many of her most faithful and devoted public servants come within this category—but nothing can replace the peculiar feeling which man sucks in with his mother's milk for the spot where first he breathed the air of heaven. Those who have come into her may feel themselves identified with her, so that her interest is their interest, but, strive as they may, they cannot acquire that enthusiastic love—made up of moral sentiment and youthful association—which springs out of an identity as well as of lineage as of pursuit. The Greeks expressed this feeling when they gloried in being 'sons of the soil,'

and felt that a stain upon their country was a stain upon a mother's reputation, and a reproach to her an insult that went to their hearts as to the hearts of children.

This is what Georgia, for years to come, should especially cultivate—this feeling of *homebred affection*—the saying of her sons, 'This is my own, my native land,' and not only saying it, but living it in thought and word and action. It has been impossible for her hitherto to have possessed it in her length and breadth, but now she may, and now she will, and it must give her an impulse that shall show her sister States that she is 'as a giant awaking out of sleep.' Let her sons but lock their shields together, and nothing can impede her progress to greatness!"—*Address before the Georgia Historical Society, 1884.*

THE FOREIGN POLICY OF ENGLAND. Joseph Cowen.—"England is not so many square roods of land, but a nation whose people are united in a love of soil and race, by mutual sympathy and tradition, by character and institutions. It is not a fortuitous concourse of individuals merely bound over to keep the peace towards each other, and, for the rest, following their own selfish objects, and crying outside their own cottage, counting-house, or country, 'let everything take its course.' Our country is something more than the mere work-shop of the world, a manufactory of flashy clothing, and a market for cheap goods. We are pledged to each other as citizens of a great nationality, and by solidarity of life. We owe a duty to ourselves, to our families, and to our country, and also to our generation and to the future. We have grown great, not merely by the extent of our possessions, and the fertility of our soil, but by the preservation of our liberties and the energy and enterprise of our people. The present generation is

the outcome of centuries of effort. The history of England is woven and interwoven, laced and interlaced with the history of Europe and the world for a thousand years. Wherever liberty has struggled successfully, or wherever it has suffered in vain, there our sympathies have gone. There is nothing in human affairs that can be foreign to us. Wealth almost beyond the dreams of avarice, territorial possessions, and education bring with them heavy responsibilities. Power, to the very last particle of it, is duty. Unto whom much is given, of him much will be required.

"As we have inherited, so we have to transmit. No one can look slightingly on the results which rest upon our national resolves. But if ever a nation, drunk with the fumes of power and wealth, makes an apotheosis of gold and material pleasure, prefers riches to duty, comfort to courage, selfish enjoyment to heroic effort, and sacrifice, it sinks in the respect of others, and loses the first and strongest incentive to human effort. Great work demands great effort, and great effort is the life and soul both of individuals and nations. I contend, therefore, for these two principles,—the integrity of the Empire, and the interest, the right, and the duty of England to play her part in the great battle of the world, as did our illustrious ancestors, the forerunners of European freedom."—*Extract from Speech made at Newcastle-on-Tyne, Jan. 31, 1880.*

REPEAL OF THE UNION. DANIEL O'CONNELL. —"We are standing upon Tara of the Kings; the spot where the monarchs of Ireland were elected, and where the chieftains of Ireland bound themselves, by the most solemn pledges of honor, to protect their native land against the Dane and every stranger. This was emphatically the spot from which emanated every social

power and legal authority by which the force of the entire country was concentrated for the purposes of national defence.

"On this spot I have a most important duty to perform. I here protest, in the name of my country, and in the name of my God, against the unfounded and unjust Union. My proposition to Ireland is that the Union is not binding on her people. It is void in conscience and in principle, and as a matter of constitutional law I attest these facts. Yes, I attest by everything that is sacred, without being profane, the truth of my assertions. There is no real union between the two countries, and my proposition is that there was no authority given to anyone to pass the Act of Union. Neither the English nor the Irish Legislature was competent to pass that Act, and I arraign it on these grounds. One authority alone could make that Act binding, and that was the voice of the people of Ireland. The Irish Parliament was elected to make laws and not to make legislatures; and, therefore, it had no right to assume the authority to pass the Act of Union. The Irish Parliament was elected by the Irish people as their trustees; the people were their masters, and the members were their servants, and had no right to transfer the property to any other power on earth. If the Irish Parliament had transferred its power of legislation to the French Chamber, would any man assert that the Act was valid? Would any man be mad enough to assert it; would any man be insane enough to assert it, and would the insanity of the assertion be mitigated by sending any number of members to the French Chamber? Everybody must admit that it would not. What care I for France?—and I care as little for England as for France, for both countries are foreign to me. The very highest authority in England has proclaimed

us to be aliens in blood, in religion, and in language. Do not groan him for having proved himself honest on one occasion by declaring my opinion. But to show the invalidity of the Union I could quote the authority of Locke on *Parliament*. I will, however, only detain you by quoting the declaration of Lord Plunket in the Irish Parliament, who told them that they had no authority to transfer the legislation of the country to other hands. 'As well,' said he, 'might a maniac imagine that the blow by which he destroys his wretched body annihilates his immortal soul, as you to imagine that you can annihilate the soul of Ireland—her constitutional rights.' "—*Speech on Hill of Tara, August 15, 1843.*

AN IDEAL JUDICIARY. JAMES A. BAYARD.—"No power is so sensibly felt by society as that of the judiciary. The life and property of every man is liable to be in the hands of the judges. Is it not our great interest to place our judges upon such high ground that no fear can intimidate, no hope seduce them? The present measure humbles them in the dust, it prostrates them at the feet of faction, it renders them the tools of every dominant party. It is this effect which I deprecate, it is this consequence which I deeply deplore. What does reason, what does argument avail, when party spirit presides? Subject your bench to the influence of this spirit, and justice bids a final adieu to your tribunals. We are asked, sir, if the judges are to be independent of the people? The question presents a false and delusive view. We are all the people. We are, and as long as we enjoy our freedom, we shall be divided into parties. The true question is, shall the judiciary be permanent, or fluctuate with the tide of public opinion? I beg, I implore gentlemen to consider the magnitude and value of the principle which they are about to annihilate. If

your judges are independent of political changes, they may have their preferences, but they will not enter into the spirit of party. But let their existence depend upon the support of the power of a certain set of men, and they cannot be impartial. Justice will be trodden under foot. Your courts will lose all public confidence and respect.

"The judges will be supported by their partisans, who, in their turn, will expect immunity for the wrongs and violence they commit. The spirit of party will be inflamed to madness; and the moment is not far off when this fair country is to be desolated by a civil war.

"Do not say that you render the judges dependent only on the people. You make them dependent on your President. This is his measure. The same tide of public opinion which changes a President, will change the majorities in the branches of the legislature. The legislature will be the instrument of his ambition, and he will have the courts as the instruments of his vengeance. He uses the legislature to remove the judges, that he may appoint creatures of his own. In effect, the powers of the government will be concentrated in the hands of one man, who will dare to act with more boldness, because he will be sheltered from responsibility. The independence of the judiciary was the felicity of our constitution. It was this principle that was to curb the fury of party on sudden changes. The first movements of power gained by a struggle are the most vindictive and intemperate. Raised above the storm, it was the judiciary which was to control the fiery zeal, and to quell the fierce passions of a victorious faction.

"We are standing on the brink of that revolutionary torrent, which deluged in blood one of the fairest countries of Europe.

"France had her national assembly, more numerous and equally popular with our own. She had her tribunals of justice, and her juries. But the legislature and her courts were but the instruments of her destruction. Acts of proscription and sentences of banishment and death were passed in the cabinet of a tyrant. Prostrate your judges at the feet of party, and you break down the mounds which defend you from this torrent."—*Speech on the Judiciary, 1802.*

THE MODERN INTELLECTUAL MOVEMENT. CHANNING.—"Books are now placed within reach of all. Works, once too costly except for the opulent, are now to be found on the laborer's shelf. Genius sends its light into cottages. The great names of literature have become household words among the crowd. Every party, religious or political, scatters its sheets on all the winds. We may lament, and too justly, the small comparative benefit as yet accomplished by this agency; but this ought not to surprise or discourage us. In our present state of improvement, books of little worth, deficient in taste and judgment, and ministering to men's prejudices and passions, will almost certainly be circulated too freely. Men are never very wise and select in the exercise of a new power. Mistake, error, is the discipline through which we advance. It is an undoubted fact, that, silently, books of a higher order are taking place of the worthless. Happily, the instability of the human mind works sometimes for good as well as evil; men grow tired at length even of amusements.

"The remarks now made on literature might be extended to the fine arts. In these we see, too, the tendency to universality. It is said that the spirit of the great artists has died out; but the taste for their works is spreading. By the improvements of engraving, and the

invention of casts, the genius of the great masters is going abroad. Their conceptions are no longer pent up in galleries open to but few, but meet us in our homes, and are the household pleasures of millions. Works, designed for the halls and eyes of emperors, popes, and nobles, find their way, in no poor representations, into humble dwellings, and sometimes give a consciousness of kindred powers to the child of poverty. The art of drawing, which lies at the foundation of most of the fine arts, and is the best education of the eye for nature, is becoming a branch of common education.

"Thus we see, in the intellectual movements of our times, the tendency to expansion, to universality; and this must continue. It is not an accident, or an inexplicable result, or a violence on nature; it is founded in eternal truth. Every mind was made for growth, for knowledge; and its nature is sinned against when it is doomed to ignorance. Every being is intended to acquaint himself with God and His works, and to perform wisely and disinterestedly the duties of life. Accordingly, when we see the multitude of men beginning to thirst for knowledge, for intellectual action, for something more than animal life, we see the great design of nature about to be accomplished; and society having received this impulse, will never rest till it shall have taken such a form as will place within every man's reach the means of intellectual culture. This is the revolution to which we are tending; and without this, all outward political changes would be but children's play, leaving the great work of society yet to be done."—*Essays.*

PUBLIC OPINION AND THE SWORD. THOMAS B. MACAULAY.—"I know only two ways in which societies can permanently be governed—by Public Opinion, and by the Sword. A government having at its com-

mand the armies, the fleets, and the revenues of Great Britain, might possibly hold Ireland by the sword. So Oliver Cromwell held Ireland; so William the Third held it; so Mr. Pitt held it; so the Duke of Wellington might, perhaps, have held it. But, to govern Great Britain by the sword—so wild a thought has never, I will venture to say, occurred to any public man of any party; and, if any man were frantic enough to make the attempt, he would find, before three days had expired, that there is no better sword than that which is fashioned out of a ploughshare! But, if not by the sword, how is the people to be governed? I understand how the peace is kept at New York. It is by the assent and support of the people. I understand, also, how the peace is kept at Milan. It is by the bayonets of the Austrian soldiers. But how the peace is to be kept when you have neither the popular assent nor the military force,—how the peace is to be kept in England by a government acting on the principles of the present Opposition,—I do not understand.

"Sir, we read that, in old times, when the villeins were driven to revolt by oppression,—when the castles of the nobility were burned to the ground,—when the warehouses of London were pillaged,—when a hundred thousand insurgents appeared in arms on Blackheath,—when a foul murder, perpetrated in their presence, had raised their passions to madness,—when they were looking round for some captain to succeed and avenge him whom they had lost,—just then, before Hob Miller, or Tom Carter, or Jack Straw, could place himself at their head, the King rode up to them, and exclaimed, 'I will be your leader!'—And, at once, the infuriated multitude laid down their arms, submitted to his guidance, dispersed at his command. Herein let us imitate him.

Let us say to the people, 'We are your leaders,—we, your own House of Commons.' This tone it is our interest and our duty to take. The circumstances admit of no delay. Even while I speak, the moments are passing away,—the irrevocable moments, pregnant with the destiny of a great people. The country is in danger; it may be saved; we can save it. This is the way—this is the time. In our hands are the issues of great good and great evil—the issues of the life and death of the State!"

ADAMS AND JEFFERSON. EDWARD EVERETT. —"No, fellow-citizens, we dismiss not Adams and Jefferson to the chambers of forgetfulness and death. What we admired, and prized, and venerated in them can *never* die, nor, dying, be forgotten. I had almost said that they are now beginning to live,—to live that life of unimpaired influence, of unclouded fame, of unmingled happiness, for which their talents and services were destined. They were of the select few, the least portion of whose life dwells in their physical existence; whose hearts have watched while their senses slept; whose souls have grown up into a higher being; whose pleasure is to be useful; whose wealth is an unblemished reputation; who respire the breath of honorable fame; who have deliberately and consciously put what is called life to hazard, that they may live in the hearts of those who come after. Such men do not, cannot, *die*.

"To be cold, and motionless, and breathless; to feel not and speak not: this is not the end of existence to the men who have breathed their spirits into the institutions of their country, who have stamped their characters on the pillars of the age, who have poured their heart's blood into the channels of the public prosperity. Tell me, ye who tread the sods of yon sacred height, is War-

ren dead ? Can you not still see him, not pale and prostrate, the blood of his gallant heart pouring out of his ghastly wound, but moving resplendent over the field of honor, with the rose of heaven upon his cheek, and the fire of liberty in his eye ?

" Tell me, ye who make your pious pilgrimage to the shades of Vernon, is Washington indeed shut up in that cold and narrow house ? That which made these men, and men like these, cannot die. The hand that traced the charter of independence is, indeed, motionless; the eloquent lips that sustained it are hushed; but the lofty spirits that conceived, resolved, matured, maintained it, and which alone, to such men, 'make it life to live,' *these* cannot expire:

" ' These shall resist the empire of decay,
When time is o'er, and worlds have passed away:
Cold in the dust the perished heart may lie,
But that which warmed it once can never die.' "

NATIONS AND HUMANITY. GEO. W. CURTIS. —"It was not his olive valleys and orange groves which made the Greece of the Greek, it was not for his apple orchards or potato fields that the farmer of New England and New York left his plough in the furrow and marched to Bunker Hill, to Bennington, to Saratoga. A man's country is not a certain area of land, but it is a principle; and patriotism is loyalty to that principle. The secret sanctification of the soil and symbol of a country is the idea which they represent; and this idea the patriot worships through the name and the symbol.

" So with passionate heroism, of which tradition is never weary of tenderly telling, Arnold von Winkelreid gathers into his bosom the sheaf of foreign spears. So, Nathan Hale, disdaining no service that duty demands,

perishes untimely with no other friend than God and the satisfied sense of duty. So, through all history from the beginning, a noble army of martyrs has fought fiercely, and fallen bravely, for that unseen mistress, their country. So, through all history to the end, that army must still march, and fight, and fall.

"But countries and families are but nurseries and influences. A man is a father, a brother, a German, a Roman, an American; but beneath all these relations he is a man. The end of his human destiny is not to be the best German, or the best Roman, or the best father; but the best man he can be.

"History shows us that the association of men in various nations is made subservient to the gradual advance of the whole human race; and that all nations work together toward one grand result. So, to the philosophic eye, the race is but a vast caravan forever moving, but seeming often to encamp for centuries at some green oasis of ease, where luxury lures away heroism, as soft Capua enervated the hosts of Hannibal.

"But still the march proceeds,—slowly, slowly over mountains, through valleys, along plains, marking its course with monumental splendors, with wars, plagues, crimes, advancing still, decorated with all the pomp of nature, lit by the constellations, cheered by the future, warned by the past. In that vast march, the van forgets the rear; the individual is lost; and yet the multitude is but many individuals. The man faints, and falls, and dies and is forgotten; but still mankind moves on, still worlds revolve, and the will of God is done in earth and heaven.

"We of America, with our soil sanctified and our symbol glorified by the great ideas of liberty and religion,—love of freedom and love of God,—are in the fore-

most vanguard of this great caravan of humanity. To us rulers look, and learn justice, while they tremble; to us the nations look, and learn to hope, while they rejoice. Our heritage is all the love and heroism of liberty in the past; and all the great of the Old World are our teachers.

"Our faith is in God and the Right; and God Himself is, we believe, our Guide and Leader. Though darkness sometimes shadows our national sky, though confusion comes from error, and success breeds corruption, yet will the storm pass in God's good time, and in clearer sky and purer atmosphere our national life grow stronger and nobler, sanctified more and more, consecrated to God and liberty by the martyrs who fall in the strife for the just and true.

"And so, with our individual hearts strong in love for our principles, strong in faith in our God, shall the nation leave to coming generations a heritage of freedom, and law, and religion, and truth, more glorious than the world has known before; and our American banner be planted first and highest on heights as yet unwon in the great march of humanity."

IN DEFENCE OF O'CONNELL. RICHARD LALOR SHEIL.—"You will not consign him to the spot to which the attorney-general invites you to surrender him. When the spring shall have come again, and the winter shall have passed—when the spring shall have come again, it is not through the windows of a prison-house that the father of such a son, and the son of such a father, shall look upon these green hills on which the eyes of many a captive have gazed so wistfully in vain, but in their own mountain home again they shall listen to the murmurs of the great Atlantic; they shall go forth and inhale the freshness of the morning air together; 'they shall be

free of mountain solitudes'; they will be encompassed with the loftiest images of liberty upon every side; and if time shall have stolen its suppleness from the father's knee, or impaired the firmness of his tread, he shall lean on the child of her that watches over him from heaven, and shall look out from some high place far and wide into the island whose greatness and whose glory shall be forever associated with his name. In your love of justice —in your love of Ireland—in your love of honesty and fair play—I place my confidence. I ask you for an acquittal, not only for the sake of your country, but for your own. Upon the day when this trial shall have been brought to a termination, when, amidst the hush of public expectancy, in answer to the solemn interrogatory which shall be put to you by the officer of the court, you shall answer, 'Not guilty,' with what a transport will that glorious negative be welcomed! How you will be blest, adored, worshipped; and when retiring from this scene of excitement and of passion, you shall return to your own tranquil homes, how pleasurably will you look upon your children, in the consciousness that you will have left them a patrimony of peace by impressing upon the British cabinet, that some other measure besides a state prosecution is necessary for the pacification of your country!"—*Speech in the Court of Queen's Bench, 1843.*

DEFENCE OF JOHN STOCKDALE. LORD ERSKINE.—"Gentlemen, I hope I have now performed my duty to my client—I sincerely hope that I have; for, certainly, if ever there was a man pulled the other way by his interests and affections, if ever there was a man who should have trembled at the situation in which I have been placed on this occasion, it is myself, who not only love, honor, and respect, but whose future hopes and preferments are linked, from free choice, with those

who, from the mistakes of the author, are treated with great severity and injustice. These are strong retardments; but I have been urged on to activity by considerations which can never be inconsistent with honorable attachments, either in the political or social world—the love of justice and of liberty, and a zeal for the Constitution of my country, which is the inheritance of our posterity, of the public, and of the world. These are the motives which have animated me in defence of this person, who is an entire stranger to me; whose shop I never go to; and the author of whose publication—or Mr. Hastings, who is the object of it—I never spoke to in my life.

"One word more, gentlemen, and I have done. Every human tribunal ought to take care to administer justice as we look hereafter to have justice administered to ourselves. Upon the principle on which the attorney-general prays sentence upon my client—God have mercy upon us. Instead of standing before Him in judgment with the hopes and consolations of Christians, we must call upon the mountains to cover us; for which of us can present, for omniscient examination, a pure, unspotted, and faultless course? But I humbly expect that the benevolent Author of our being will judge us as I have been pointing out for your example. Holding up the great volume of our lives in his hands, and regarding the general scope of them—if He discovers benevolence, charity, and good-will to man beating in the heart, where He alone can look; if He finds that our conduct, though often forced out of the path by infirmities, has been in general well directed; His all-searching eye will assuredly never pursue us into those little corners of our lives; much less will His judgment select them for punishment without the general context of our existence, by which

faults may be sometimes found to have grown out of virtues, and very many of our heaviest offences to have been grafted by human imperfection upon the best and kindest of our affections. No, gentlemen, believe me, this is not the course of divine justice, or there is no truth in the Gospels of Heaven. If the general tenor of a man's conduct be such as I have represented it, he may walk through the shadow of death, with all his faults about him, with as much cheerfulness as in the common paths of life; because he knows that, instead of a stern accuser to expose before the Author of his nature those frail passages which, like the scored matter in the book before you, checker the volume of the brightest and best spent life, His mercy will obscure them from the eye of His purity, and our repentance blot them out forever.

"All this would, I admit, be perfectly foreign and irrelevant if you were sitting here in a case of property between man and man, where a strict rule of law must operate, or there would be an end of civil life and society. It would be equally foreign, and still more irrelevant, if applied to those shameful attacks upon private reputation which are the bane and disgrace of the press; by which whole families have been rendered unhappy during life by aspersions cruel, scandalous, and unjust. Let such libellers remember that no one of my principles of defence can, at any time, or upon any occasion, ever apply to shield them from punishment; because such conduct is not only an infringement of the rights of men, as they are defined by strict law, but is absolutely incompatible with honor, honesty, or mistaken good intentions. On such men let the Attorney-General bring forth all the artillery of his office, and thanks and blessings of the whole public will follow him. But this is a totally different case. Whatever private calumny may mark this

work, it has not been made the subject of complaint, and we have therefore nothing to do with that, nor any right to consider it. We are trying whether the public could have been considered as offended and endangered if Mr. Hastings himself, in whose place the author and publisher have a right to place themselves, had, under all the circumstances which have been considered, composed and published the volume under examination. That question cannot, in common sense, be anything resembling a question of law, but is a pure question of fact, to be decided on the principles which I have humbly recommended. I therefore ask of the Court that the book itself may now be delivered to you. Read it with attention, and as you shall find it, pronounce your verdict."—*Extract from Speech in the Stockdale Case, December 9, 1789.*

REPLY TO MR. CORRY. HENRY GRATTAN.—"Has the gentleman done? Has he completely done? He was unparliamentary from the beginning to the end of his speech. There was scarce a word uttered that was not a violation of the privileges of the House. But I did not call him to order,—why? Because the limited talents of some men render it impossible for them to be severe without being unparliamentary. But before I sit down I shall show him how to be severe and parliamentary at the same time.

"The right honorable gentleman has called me 'an unimpeached traitor.' I ask why not 'traitor,' unqualified by any epithet? I will tell him: it was because he durst not. It was the act of a coward, who raises his arm to strike, but has not courage to give the blow. I will not call him villain, because it would be unparliamentary, and he is a privy counsellor. I will not call him fool, because he happens to be chancellor of the ex-

chequer. But I say, he is one who has abused the privilege of Parliament and the freedom of debate, by uttering language which, if spoken out of the House, I should answer only with a blow. I care not how high his situation, how low his character, how contemptible his speech; whether a privy counsellor or a parasite, my answer would be a blow.

"He has charged me with being connected with the rebels. The charge is utterly, totally, and meanly false. Does the honorable gentleman rely on the report of the House of Lords for the foundation of his assertion? If he does, I can prove to the committee there was a physical impossibility of that report being true.

"I have returned,—not, as the right honorable member has said, to raise another storm,—I have returned to discharge an honorable debt of gratitude to my country, that conferred a great reward for past services, which, I am proud to say, was not greater than my desert. I have returned to protect that Constitution of which I was the parent and founder from the assassination of such men as the right honorable gentleman and his unworthy associates. They are corrupt, they are seditious, and they, at this very moment, are in a conspiracy against their country. I have returned to refute a libel, as false as it is malicious, given to the public under the appellation of a report of a committee of the Lords. Here I stand, ready for impeachment or trial. I dare accusation. I defy the honorable gentleman; I defy the government; I defy their whole phalanx; let them come forth. I tell the ministers I will neither give quarter nor take it. I am here to lay the shattered remains of my constitution on the floor of this House in defence of the liberties of my country."

THE COERCION BILL. C. S. PARNELL.—"I

trust before this Bill goes into Committee, or at all events before it leaves Committee, the great English people will make their voices heard, and impress upon their representatives that they must not go on any further with this coercive legislation. If this House and its majority have not sense enough to see this, the great heart of the country will see it, for I believe it is a great and generous heart, that can sympathize even when a question is concerned in reference to which there have been so many political antipathies. I am convinced, by what I have seen of the great meetings which have been held over the length and breadth of England and Scotland, that the heart of your nation has been reached—that it has been touched, and, though our opponents may be in a majority to-day, that the real force of public opinion is not at their back. A Bill which is supported by men, many of whom are looking over their shoulders and behind them, like the soldiers of an army which a panic is beginning to reach, to see which is their readiest mode of retreat, is not likely to get through the difficult times before it emerges from Committee. The result will be modifications of the provisions of the most drastic of the Coercion Acts ever introduced against Ireland since 1833. Do not talk to me of comparing the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act with the present Bill. We have suffered from both. We have suffered from some of the provisions of the present Bill, as well as from the Habeas Corpus Suspension Act, and we are able to compare the one with the other; and I tell you that the provisions of the Habeas Corpus Suspension Act empowered you to arrest and detain in prison those whom you suspected; but it guaranteed them humane treatment, which did much to soften the asperities that otherwise would have been bred between the two nations by that

Act. Your prisoners under the Habeas Corpus Act were not starved and tortured as they will be under this. Your political prisoners were not put upon a plank bed, and fed on sixteen ounces of bread and water per day, and compelled to pick oakum, and perform hard labor, as they will be under this Bill. The Bill will be the means by which you will be enabled to subject your political prisoners to treatment in your gaols which you reserve in England for the worst criminals, and it is idle to talk about comparison between the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act, under which your prisoners were humanely and properly treated—although imprisonment is hard to bear under the best circumstances; but in the position in which this Bill will place them, your political prisoners will be deliberately starved with hunger and clammed with cold in your gaols. I trust in God, sir, that this nation and this House may be saved from the degradation and the peril that the mistake of passing this Bill puts them in:"—*Extract from Speech delivered in the House of Commons, April 18, 1887.*

SUSPENSION OF THE HABEAS CORPUS ACT.

JOHN BRIGHT.—"I owe an apology to the Irish members for stepping in to make an observation to the House on this question. My strong interest in the affairs of their country, ever since I came into Parliament, will be my sufficient excuse.

"Sixty-five years ago this country undertook to govern Ireland. I will say nothing of the manner in which that duty was brought upon us except this—that it was by proceedings disgraceful and corrupt to the last degree. I will say nothing of the pretences under which it was brought about but this—that the English Parliament and people, and the Irish people, too, were told, if you once get rid of the Irish Parliament it will dethrone forever

Irish factions, and with a united Parliament we shall become a united, and stronger, and happier people. Now, during these sixty-five years—and on this point I ask for the attention of the right honorable gentleman who has just spoken [Mr. Disraeli] there are only three considerable measures which Parliament has passed in the interests of Ireland. One of them was the measure of 1829, for the emancipation of the Catholics and to permit them to have seats in this House. But that measure, so just, so essential, and which, of course, is not ever to be recalled, was a measure which the chief minister of the day, a great soldier, and a great judge of military matters —the Duke of Wellington—admitted was passed in the face of the menace and only because of the danger of civil war. The other two measures to which I have referred are the measure for the relief of the poor, and the measure for the sale of the encumbered estates; and those measures were introduced to the House, and passed through the House in the emergency of a famine more severe than any that has desolated any Christian country of the world within the last four hundred years.

"Except on these two emergencies, I appeal to every Irish member, and to every English member who has paid any attention to the matter, whether the statement is not true that this Parliament has done nothing for the people of Ireland. And, more than that, their complaints have been met—often by denial, often by insult, often by contempt. And within the last few years we have heard from this very Treasury Bench observations with regard to Ireland which no friend of Ireland, or of England, and no minister of the crown, ought to have uttered with regard to that country. Twice in my Parliamentary life this thing has been done—at least, by the close of this day will have been done—and measures of

repression—measures for the suspension of the civil rights of the Irish people—have been brought into Parliament and passed with extreme and unusual rapidity. I have not risen to blame the Secretary of State, or to blame his colleagues, for the act of to-day. There may be circumstances to justify a proposition of this kind, and I am not here to deny that these circumstances now exist; but what I complain of is this: there is no statesmanship merely in acts of force and acts of repression. And more than that, I have not observed since I have been in Parliament anything on this Irish question that approaches to the dignity of statesmanship. There has been, I admit, an improved administration in Ireland. There have been lord-lieutenants anxious to be just, and there is one there now who is probably as anxious to do justice as any man. We have observed generally in the recent trials a better tone and temper than were ever witnessed under similar circumstances in Ireland before. But if I go back to the ministers who have sat on the Treasury Bench since I first came into this House—Sir Robert Peel first, then Lord John Russell, then Lord Aberdeen, then Lord Derby, then Lord Palmerston, then Lord Derby again, then Lord Palmerston again, and now Earl Russell—I say that, with regard to all these men, there has not been any approach to anything that history will describe as statesmanship on the part of the English Government towards Ireland. There were Coercion Bills in abundance, Arms Bills session after session—lamentations like that of the right honorable gentleman, the member for Buckinghamshire, that the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act was not made perpetual by a clause which he laments was repealed. There have been Acts for the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act, like that which we are now discussing; but there

has been no statesmanship. Men, the most clumsy and brutal, can do these things; but we want men of higher temper—men of higher genius—men of higher patriotism to deal with the affairs of Ireland."—*Extract from Speech made in the House of Commons, February 17, 1866.*

REMOVAL OF THE PUBLIC MONEY. MARTIN VAN BUREN.—"Fellow-citizens of the Senate and House of Representatives: The Act of the 23d of June, 1836, regulating the deposits of the public money and directing the employment of State, District, and Territorial banks for that purpose, made it the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to discontinue the use of such of them as should at any time refuse to redeem their notes in specie, and to substitute other banks, provided a sufficient number could be obtained to receive the public deposits upon the terms and conditions therein prescribed. The general and almost simultaneous suspension of specie payments by the banks in May last renders the performance of this duty imperative in respect to those which had been selected under the act, and made it at the same time impracticable to employ the requisite number of others upon the prescribed conditions. The specific regulations established by Congress for the deposit and safe-keeping of the public moneys having thus unexpectedly become inoperative, I felt it to be my duty to afford you an early opportunity for the exercise of your supervisory powers over the subject. I was also led to apprehend that the suspension of specie payments, increasing the embarrassments before existing in the pecuniary affairs of the country, would so far diminish the public revenue that the accruing receipts into the Treasury would not, with the reserved five millions, be sufficient to defray the unavoidable expenses of the government until the usual period for the meeting of Congress, whilst

the authority to call upon the States for a portion of the sums deposited with them was too restricted to enable the department to realize a sufficient amount from that source. These apprehensions have been justified by subsequent results, which render it certain that this deficiency will occur if additional means be not provided by Congress.

"The difficulties experienced by mercantile interests in meeting their engagements induced them to apply to me previously to the actual suspension of specie payments for indulgence upon their bonds for duties, and all the relief authorized by law was promptly and cheerfully granted. The dependence of the Treasury upon the avails of these bonds to enable it to make the deposits with the States required by law led me in the outset to limit this indulgence to the 1st of September, but it has since been extended to the 1st of October, that the matter might be submitted to your further direction.

"Questions were also expected to rise in the recess in respect to the October installment of those deposits requiring the interposition of Congress.

"A provision of another act, passed about the same time, and intended to secure a faithful compliance with the obligation of the United States to satisfy all demands upon them in specie or its equivalent, prohibited the offer of any bank-note not convertible on the spot into gold or silver at the will of the holder; and the ability of the Government, with millions on deposit, to meet its engagements in the manner thus required by law was rendered very doubtful by the event to which I have referred.

"Sensible that adequate provisions for these unexpected exigencies could only be made by Congress; convinced that some of them would be indispensably

necessary to the public service before the regular period of your meeting, and desirous also to enable you to exercise at the earliest moment your full constitutional powers for the relief of the country, I could not with propriety avoid subjecting you to the inconvenience of assembling at as early a day as the state of the popular representation would permit. I am sure that I have done but justice to your feelings in believing that this inconvenience will be cheerfully encountered in the hope of rendering your meeting conducive to the good of the country."—*September 4, 1837.*

BANK CHARTERS. ANDREW JACKSON.—"Having carefully and anxiously considered all the facts and arguments which have been submitted to him relative to a removal of the public deposits from the Bank of the United States, the President deems it his duty to communicate in this manner to his Cabinet the final conclusions of his own mind and the reasons on which they are founded, in order to put them in durable form and to prevent misconceptions.

"The President's convictions of the dangerous tendencies of the Bank of the United States, since signally illustrated by its own acts, were so overpowering when he entered on the duties of Chief Magistrate that he felt it his duty, notwithstanding the objections of the friends by whom he was surrounded, to avail himself of the first occasion to call the attention of Congress and the people to the question of its re-charter. The opinions expressed in his annual message of December, 1829, were reiterated in those of December, 1830 and 1831, and in that of 1830 he threw out for consideration some suggestions in relation to a substitute. At the session of 1831–32 an Act was passed by a majority of both Houses of Congress re-chartering the present bank, upon which the President

felt it his duty to put his constitutional veto. In his message returning that Act he repeated and enlarged upon the principles and views briefly asserted in his annual message, declaring the bank to be, in his opinion, both inexpedient and unconstitutional, and announcing to his countrymen very unequivocally his firm determination never to sanction by his approval the continuance of that institution or the establishment of any other upon similar principles.

"There are strong reasons for believing that the motive of the bank in asking for a re-charter at that session of Congress was to make it a leading question in the election of a President of the United States the ensuing November, and all steps deemed necessary were taken to procure from the people a reversal of the President's decision.

"Although the charter was approaching its termination, and the bank was aware that it was the intention of the Government to use the public deposit as fast as it has accrued in the payment of the public debt, yet did it extend its loans from January, 1831, to May, 1832, from $42,402,304.24 to $70,428,070.72, being an increase of $28,025,766.48 in sixteen months. It is confidently believed that the leading object of this immense extension of its loans was to bring as large a portion of the people as possible under its power and influence, and it has been disclosed that some of the largest sums were granted on very unusual terms to the conductors of the public press. In some of these cases the motive was made manifest by the nominal or insufficient security taken for the loans, by the large amounts discounted, by the extraordinary time allowed for payment, and especially by the subsequent conduct of those receiving the accommodations.

"Having taken these preliminary steps to obtain con-

trol over public opinion, the bank came into Congress and asked a new charter. The object avowed by many of the advocates of the bank was to *put the President to the test*, that the country might know his final determination relative to the bank prior to the ensuing election. Many documents and articles were printed and circulated at the expense of the bank to bring the people to a favorable decision upon its pretensions. Those whom the bank appears to have made its debtors for the special occasion were warned of the ruin which awaited them should the President be sustained, and attempts were made to alarm the whole people by painting the depression in the price of property and produce and the general loss, inconvenience, and distress which it was represented would immediately follow the re-election of the President in opposition to the bank.

"Can it now be said that the question of a re-charter of the bank was not decided at the election which ensued? Had the veto been equivocal; or had it not covered the whole ground; if it had merely taken exceptions to the details of the bill or to the time of its passage; if it had not met the whole ground of constitutionality and expediency, then there might have been some plausibility for the allegation that the question was not decided by the people. It was to compel the President to take his stand that the question was brought forward at that particular time. He met the challenge, willingly took the position into which his adversaries sought to force him, and frankly declared his unalterable opposition to the bank as being both unconstitutional and inexpedient. On that ground the case was argued to the people; and now that the people have sustained the President, notwithstanding the array of influence and power which was brought to bear upon him, it is too late, he confidently

thinks, to say that the question has not been decided. Whatever may have been the opinion of others, the President considers his re-election as a decision of the people against the bank. In the concluding paragraph of his veto message he said:

"'I have now done my duty to my country. If sustained by my fellow-citizens, I shall be grateful and happy; if not, I shall find in the motives which impel me ample grounds for contentment and peace.'

"He was sustained by a just people, and he desires to evince his gratitude by carrying into effect their decision so far as it depends upon him."—*September 18, 1833.*

PROCLAMATION BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

A PROCLAMATION.

"Whereas sundry important and weighty matters, principally growing out of the condition of the revenue and finances of the country, appear to me to call for the consideration of Congress at an earlier day than its next annual session, and thus form an extraordinary occasion, such as renders necessary, in my judgment, the convention of the two Houses as soon as may be practicable:

"I do therefore by this my proclamation convene the two Houses of Congress to meet in the Capitol, at the city of Washington, on the last Monday, being the 31st day, of May next; and I require the respective Senators and Representatives then and there to assemble, in order to receive such information respecting the state of the Union as may be given to them and to devise and adopt such measures as the good of the country may seem to them, in the exercise of their wisdom and discretion, to require.

"In testimony whereof I have caused the seal of the United States to be hereunto affixed, and signed the same with my hand. Done at [SEAL.] the City of Washington, the 17th day of March, A.D. 1841, and of the Independence of the United States the sixty-fifth.

"W. H. HARRISON.

"By the President:

"DANIEL WEBSTER,

"Secretary of State."

NORTHWEST HEAD OF CONNECTICUT RIVER.—"The true mode of determining the most northwesterly of any two given points need no longer be a matter of discussion. It has already been a matter adjudicated and assented to by both Governments, in the case of the Lake of the Woods. The point to be considered as most to the northwest is that which a ruler laid on a map drawn according to Mercator's projection in a direction northeast and southwest and moved parallel to itself toward the northwest would last touch. In this view of the subject the Eastern Branch of the Connecticut, which forms the lake of that name, is excluded, for its source, so far from lying to the northwest of those of the other two branches which have been explored, actually lies to the south of the source of the Indian Stream. The question must therefore lie between the two others, and it is as yet impossible to decide which of them is best entitled to the epithet, as their sources lie very nearly in the same northeast and southwest rhomb line. Another circumstance would, however, render the decision between them easy. The forty-fifth parallel of latitude, as laid out by the surveyors of the provinces of Quebec and New York in conformity with

the proclamation of 1763, crosses Halls Stream above its junction with the united current of the other two. In this case the latter is the Connecticut River of the treaty of 1783, and Halls Stream, which has not yet joined it, must be excluded. The parallel, as corrected by the united operations of the British and American astronomers under the fifth article of the treaty of Ghent, does not touch Halls Stream, and the Connecticut River, to which it is produced, is the united current of the three streams. If, then, the corrected parallel should become the boundary between the United States and the British Provinces, Halls Stream must become one of those the claim of whose source to the title of the northwesternmost head of Connecticut River is to be examined. And here it may be suggested, although with the hesitation that is natural in impeaching such high authority, that the commissioners under the fifth article of the treaty of Ghent in all probability misconstrued that instrument when they reopened the question of the forty-fifth parallel. It cannot be said that the forty-fifth degree of latitude had '*not been surveyed*,' when it is notorious that it had been traced and marked throughout the whole extent from St. Regis to the bank of the Connecticut River.

"In studying, for the purpose of illustration, the history of this part of the boundary line it will be found that a change was made in it by the Quebec Act of 1774. The proclamation of 1763 directs the forty-fifth parallel to be continued only until it meets highlands, while in that bill the Connecticut River is made the boundary of the province of Quebec. Now, the earlier of these instruments was evidently founded upon the French claim to extend their possession of Canada ten leagues from the St. Lawrence River, and from the citadel of Quebec, looking to the south, are seen mountains whence rivers

flow to the St. Lawrence. On their opposite slope there was a probability that streams might flow to the Atlantic. These mountains, however, are visibly separated from those over which the line claimed by the United States runs by a wide gap. This is the valley of the Chaudiere; and the St. Francis also rises on the southeastern side of these mountains and makes its way through them. It is not, therefore, in any sense a dividing ridge. Yet under the proclamation of 1763 the provinces of New York and New Hampshire claimed and were entitled to the territory lying behind it, which is covered by their royal charters. The Quebec Act, it would appear, was intended to divest them of it, and according to the construction of the treaty of 1783 now contended for, the United States acquiesced in this diminution of the territory of those members of the Union. If, however, it be true, as maintained by Messrs. Featherstonhaugh and Mudge, that the highlands seen to the south of Quebec are a portion of the ridge seen from southeast to northeast, and if, as they maintain, so deep and wide a valley as that of the St. John is no disruption of the continuity of highlands, it would be possible to show that the highlands of the treaty of 1783 are made up of these two ridges of mountains and that the United States is entitled to the whole of the eastern townships. This range of highlands would coincide with the terms of the proclamation of 1763 by terminating on the north shore of the Bay of Chaleurs, while the abraded highlands of Messrs. Featherstonhaugh and Mudge terminate on its south shore. In fact, there is no step in their argument which might not be adduced to support this claim, nor any apparent absurdity in preferring it which would not find its parallel in one or other of the positions they assume.

"In this view of the history of this part of the line it becomes evident, however, that in divesting the provinces of New York and New Hampshire by the Quebec Act of territory admitted to belong to them in the proclamation of 1763, the British Parliament must have intended to make the encroachment as small as possible, and the first important branch of the Connecticut met with in tracing the forty-fifth parallel must have been intended. This intention is fully borne out by the words of the treaty of 1783, which chose from among the branches of the Connecticut that whose source is farthest to the northwest.

"It has therefore been shown in the foregoing statement—

"1. That the river to be considered as the St. Croix and its true source have been designated by a solemn act, to which the good faith of the majesty of Great Britain and of the people of the United States is pledged, and cannot now be disturbed.

"2. That the boundary line must, in compliance with the provisions of the treaty of 1783, be drawn due north from the source of that river, and in no other direction whatever.

"3. That the northwest angle of Nova Scotia was a point sufficiently known at the date of the treaty of 1783 to be made the starting-point of the boundary of the United States; that it was both described in the treaty and defined, without being named in previous official acts of the British government, in so forcible a manner that no difficulty need have existed in finding it.

"4. That the line of highlands claimed by the United States is, as the argument on the part of Great Britain has maintained it ought to be, in a mountainous region, while that proposed by Messrs. Featherstonhaugh and

Mudge does not possess this character; that it is also, in the sense uniformly maintained by the United States, the height of land, which that of Messrs. Featherstonhaugh and Mudge is not; that it fulfils in every sense the conditions of the proclamation of 1763, which no other line that can possibly be drawn in the territory in question can perform.

"5. That as far as the Indian Stream and that flowing through Lake Connecticut are concerned, the source of the former must in the sense established by the assent of both parties be considered as the northwestern source of the Connecticut River, but that if the old demarcation of the forty-fifth parallel be disturbed the question must lie between the sources of Halls and of Indian Streams.

"All of which is respectfully submitted.

"JAS. RENWICK,
"JAMES D. GRAHAM,
"A. TALCOTT,
"Commissioners."

THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA. EDMUND BURKE.—"In India, all the vices operate by which sudden fortune is acquired; in England are often displayed by the same persons the virtues which dispense hereditary wealth. Arrived in England, the destroyers of the nobility and gentry of a whole kingdom will find the best company in this nation, at a board of elegance and hospitality. Here the manufacturer and husbandman will bless the just and punctual hand that in India has torn the cloth from the loom, or wrested the scanty portion of rice and salt from the peasant of Bengal, or wrung from him the very opium in which he forgot his oppressions and his oppressor. They marry into

your families ; they enter into your senate ; they ease your estates by loans ; they raise their value by demands ; they cherish and protect your relations, which lie heavy on your patronage ; and there is scarcely a house in the kingdom that does not feel some concern and interest that makes all reform of our eastern government appear officious and disgusting, and, on the whole, a most discouraging attempt. In such an attempt you hurt those who are able to return kindness, or to resent injury. If you succeed, you save those who cannot so much as give you thanks. All these things show the difficulty of the work we have on hand ; but they show its necessity too. Our Indian government is, in its best state, a grievance. It is necessary that the correctives should be uncommonly vigorous; and the work of men, sanguine, warm, and even impassioned in the cause. But it is an arduous thing to plead against abuses of a power which originates from your own country, and affects those whom we are used to consider as strangers."—*Speech on Mr. Fox's East India Bill.*

SCENES FROM WESTERN LIFE. HAMLIN GARLAND. — "SUNRISE. In the windless September dawn a voice went singing ; a man's voice, singing a cheap and common air. Yet something in the *élan* of it all told he was young, jubilant, and a happy lover.

"Above the level belt of timber to the east a vast dome of pale undazzling gold was rising, silently and swiftly. Jays called in the thickets, where the maples flamed amid the green oaks, with irregular splashes of red and orange. The grass was crisp with frost under the feet, the road smooth and gray-white in color, the air was indescribably sweet, resonant, and stimulating. No wonder the man sang.

"He came into view around the curve in the lane. He

had a fork on his shoulder, a graceful and polished tool. His straw hat was tilted on the back of his head, his rough, faded coat buttoned close to the chin, and he wore thick buckskin gloves on his hands. He looked muscular and intelligent, and was evidently about twenty-two years of age.

"As he walked on, and the sunrise came nearer to him, he stopped his song. The broadening heavens had a majesty and sweetness that made him forget the physical joy of happy youth. He grew almost sad with the great vague thoughts and emotions which rolled in his brain as the wonder of the morning grew.

"He walked more slowly, mechanically following the road, his eyes on the ever-shifting streaming banners of rose and pale green which made the east too glorious for any words to tell. The air was so still it seemed to await expectantly the coming of the sun.

"Then his mind flew back to Agnes. Would she see it? She was at work, getting breakfast, but he hoped she had time to see it. He was in that mood so common to him now, when he could not fully enjoy any sight or sound unless he could share it with her. Far down the road he heard the sharp clatter of a wagon. The roosters were calling near and far in many keys and tunes. The dogs were barking, cattle-bells jangling in the wooded pastures, and as the youth passed farmhouses, lights in the kitchen windows showed that the women were astir about breakfast, and the sound of voices and currycombs at the barn told that the men were at their daily chores.

"And the east bloomed broader. The dome of gold grew brighter, the faint clouds here and there flamed with a flush of gold. The frost began to glisten with reflected color. The youth dreamed as he walked; his

broad face and deep earnest eyes caught and reflected some of the beauty and majesty of the sky."

AFTER THE BATTLE.—"It was agonizing to see the wounded men who were lying there under a broiling sun, parched with excruciating thirst, racked with fever, and agonized with pain,—to behold them waving their caps faintly or making signals toward our lines, over which they could see the white flag waving, and not be able to help them. They lay where they fell, or had scrambled into the holes formed by shells; and there they had been for thirty hours—oh! how long and how dreadful in their weariness! An officer told me that one soldier who was close to the abatis, when he saw a few men come out of the embrasure, raised himself on his elbow, and fearing he should be unnoticed and passed by, raised his cap on a stick and waved it till he fell back exhausted. Again he rose, and managed to tear off his shirt, which he agitated in the air till his strength failed him. His face could be seen through a glass, and my friend said he never could forget the expression of resignation and despair with which the poor fellow at last abandoned his useless efforts, and folded his shirt under his head to await the mercy of Heaven. Whether he was alive or not when our men went out, I cannot say; but five hours of thirst, fever, and pain under a fierce sun, would make awful odds against him. The red-coats lay sadly thick over the broken ground in front of the abatis of the Redan, and blue and gray coats were scattered about or lay in piles in the rain-courses before the Malakoff."—*London Times.*

NIGHT. C. H. SPURGEON.—"The world hath its night. It seemeth necessary that it should have one. The sun shineth by day, and men go forth to their labors; but they grow weary, and nightfall cometh on,

like a sweet boon from heaven. The darkness draweth the curtains and shutteth out the light, which might prevent our eyes from slumber; while the sweet, calm stillness of the night permits us to rest upon the lap of ease, and there forget awhile our cares, until the morning sun appeareth, and an angel puts his hand upon the curtain, and undraws it once again, touches our eyelids, and bids us rise and proceed to the labors of the day. Night is one of the greatest blessings men enjoy; we have many reasons to thank God for it. Yet night is to many a gloomy season. There is 'the pestilence that walketh in darkness;' there is 'the terror by night;' there is the dread of robbers and of fell disease, with all those fears that the timorous know, when they have no light wherewith they can discern objects. It is then they fancy that spiritual creatures walk the earth; though, if they knew rightly, they would find it to be true, that

'Millions of spiritual creatures walk this earth,
Unseen, both when we sleep and when we wake,

and that at all times they are round about us—not more by night than by day. Night is the season of terror and alarm to most men. Yet even night hath its songs. Have you ever stood by the sea at night, and heard the pebbles sing, and the waves chant God's glories? Or have you ever risen from your couch, and thrown up the window of your chamber, and listened there? Listened to what? Silence—save now and then a murmuring sound, which seems sweet music then. And have you not fancied that you heard the harp of God playing in heaven? Did you not conceive that yon stars, that those eyes of God, looking down on you, were also mouths of song—that every star was singing God's glory, singing, as it shone, its mighty Maker and His lawful,

well-deserved praise? Night hath its songs. We need not much poetry in our spirit to catch the song of night, and hear the spheres as they chant praises which are loud to the heart, though they be silent to the ear—the praises of the mighty God, who bears up the unpillared arch of heaven, and moves the stars in their courses."—*Sermons.*

THE EARLY FRENCH. AUGUSTIN THIERRY.—"In 1810, I was finishing my studies at the College of Blois, when a copy of *Les Martyrs*, brought from without, circulated through the college. It was a great event for those amongst us who already felt a love of the beautiful and of glory. We quarrelled for the book; it was arranged that each one should have it by turns, and mine fell on a holiday, at the hour of going out walking. That day I pretended to have hurt my foot, and remained alone at home. I read, or rather devoured the pages, seated before my desk in a vaulted room, which was our school-room, and the aspect of which appeared to me grand and imposing. I at first felt a vague delight, my imagination was dazzled; but when I came to the recital of Eudore, that living history of the declining empire, a more active and reflecting interest attached me to the picture of the Eternal City, of the court of a Roman emperor, the march of a Roman army in the marshes of Batavia, and its encounter with an army of Franks.

"I had read in the history of France, used by the scholars of the military college, and our classical book, 'The Franks or French, already masters of Tournay and the banks of the Escaut, had extended their conquests as far as Somme. Clovis, son of King Childeric, ascended the throne 481, and by his victories strengthened the foundations of the French monarchy.' All my

archæology of the Middle Ages consisted in these sentences, and some others of the same kind, which I had learned by heart. *French, throne, monarchy*, were to me the beginning and end, the groundwork and the form of our national history. Nothing had given me any notion of M. de Chateaubriand's terrible Franks, *clothed in the skins of bears, seals, and wild boars*, and of the camp *guarded by leathern boats, and chariots drawn by huge oxen*, of the army placed in the form of a triangle, *in which could be distinguished nothing but a forest of javelins, of wild beasts' skins, and half-naked bodies.*" As the dramatic contrast between the savage warrior and the civilized soldier gradually developed itself, I was more and more deeply struck; the impression made on me by the war-song of the Franks was something electrical. I left the place where I was seated, and marching from one end of the room to the other, repeated aloud, and making my steps ring on the pavement:

"'Pharamond! Pharamond! we have fought with the sword.

"'We have hurled the battle-axe with two blades; sweat ran from the brow of the warriors, and trickled down their arms. The eagles and birds with yellow feet uttered screams of joy; the crows swam in the blood of the dead; all ocean was but a wound. The virgins have long wept.

"'Pharamond! Pharamond! we have fought with the sword.

"'Our fathers fell in battle, all the vultures moaned at it; our fathers satiated them with carnage. Let us choose wives whose milk shall be blood, and shall fill with valor the hearts of our sons. Pharamond, the song of the bard is ended, the hours of life are passing away; we will smile when we must die.

"'Thus sang forty thousand barbarians. The riders raised and lowered their white shields in cadence; and at each burden, they struck their iron-clad chests with the iron of their javelins.'"—*Preface to "Récit des Temps Merovingiens."*

THE PLAGUE. AUGUSTUS H. JESSOPP.—"This is the earliest instance I have yet met with of the appearance of the plague among us, and as it is the earliest, so does it appear to have been one of the most frightful visitations from which any town or village in Suffolk or Norfolk suffered during the time the pestilence lasted. On the 1st of May another court was held, fifteen more deaths are recorded—thirteen men and two women. *Seven of them without heirs.* On the 3d of November, apparently when the panic abated, again the court met. In the six months that had passed thirty-six more deaths had occurred, and *thirteen more households* had been left without a living soul to represent them. In this little community, in six months' time, twenty-one families had been absolutely obliterated—men, women, and children—and of the rest it is difficult to see how there can have been a single house in which there was not one dead. Meanwhile, some time in September, the parson of the parish had fallen a victim to the scourge, and on the 2d of October another was instituted in his room. Who reaped the harvest? The tithe sheaf too—how was it garnered in the barn? And the poor kine at milking time?. Hush, let us pass on.

. . . . . .

"The plague had apparently fallen with the greatest virulence upon the coast and along the water courses, but already in the spring had reached the neighborhood of Norwich, and was showing an unsparing impartiality in its visitation. At Earlham and Wytton and Horsford,

at Taversham and Bramerton, all of them villages within five miles of the cathedral, the parsons had already died. Round the great city, then the second city in England, village was being linked to village closer and closer every day in one ghastly chain of death. What a ring-fence of horror and contagion for all comers and goers to overpass!

"For two months Thomas de Methwold, the official, stayed where he had been bidden to stay, in the thick of it all, at the palace. On the 29th of May he could bear it no longer. Do you ask was he afraid? Not so. We shall see that he was no craven; but the bravest men are not reckless, and least of all are they the men who are careless about the lives or the feelings of others. The great cemetery of the city of Norwich was at this time actually within the cathedral close. The whole of the large space enclosed between the nave of the cathedral on the south and the Bishop's palace on the east, and stretching as far as the Erpingham gate on the west, was one huge graveyard. When the country parsons came to present themselves for institution at the palace, they had to pass straight across this cemetery. The tiny churchyards of the city, demonstrably very little if at all larger than they are now, were soon choked, the soil rising higher and higher above the level of the street, which even to this day is in some cases five or six feet below the soppy sod piled up within the old enclosures. To the great cemetery within the close the people brought their dead, the tumbrels discharging their load of corpses all day long, tilting them into the huge pits made ready to receive them; the stench of putrefaction palpitating through the air, and borne by the gusts of the western breeze through the windows of the palace, where the Bishop's official sat, as the candidates knelt before him

and received institution with the usual formalities. It was hard upon him, it was doubly so upon those who had travelled a long day's journey through the pestilential villages; and on the 30th of May the official removed from Norwich to Terlyng, in Essex, where the Bishop had a residence; there he remained for the next ten days, during which time he instituted thirty-nine more parsons to their several benefices. By this time other towns in the diocese had felt the force of the visitation. Ipswich had been smitten, and Stowmarket, and East Dereham—how many more we cannot tell. Then the news came that the Bishop had returned; Thomas de Methwold was at once ordered back to Norwich—come what might, that was his post; there he should stay, whether to live or die."

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